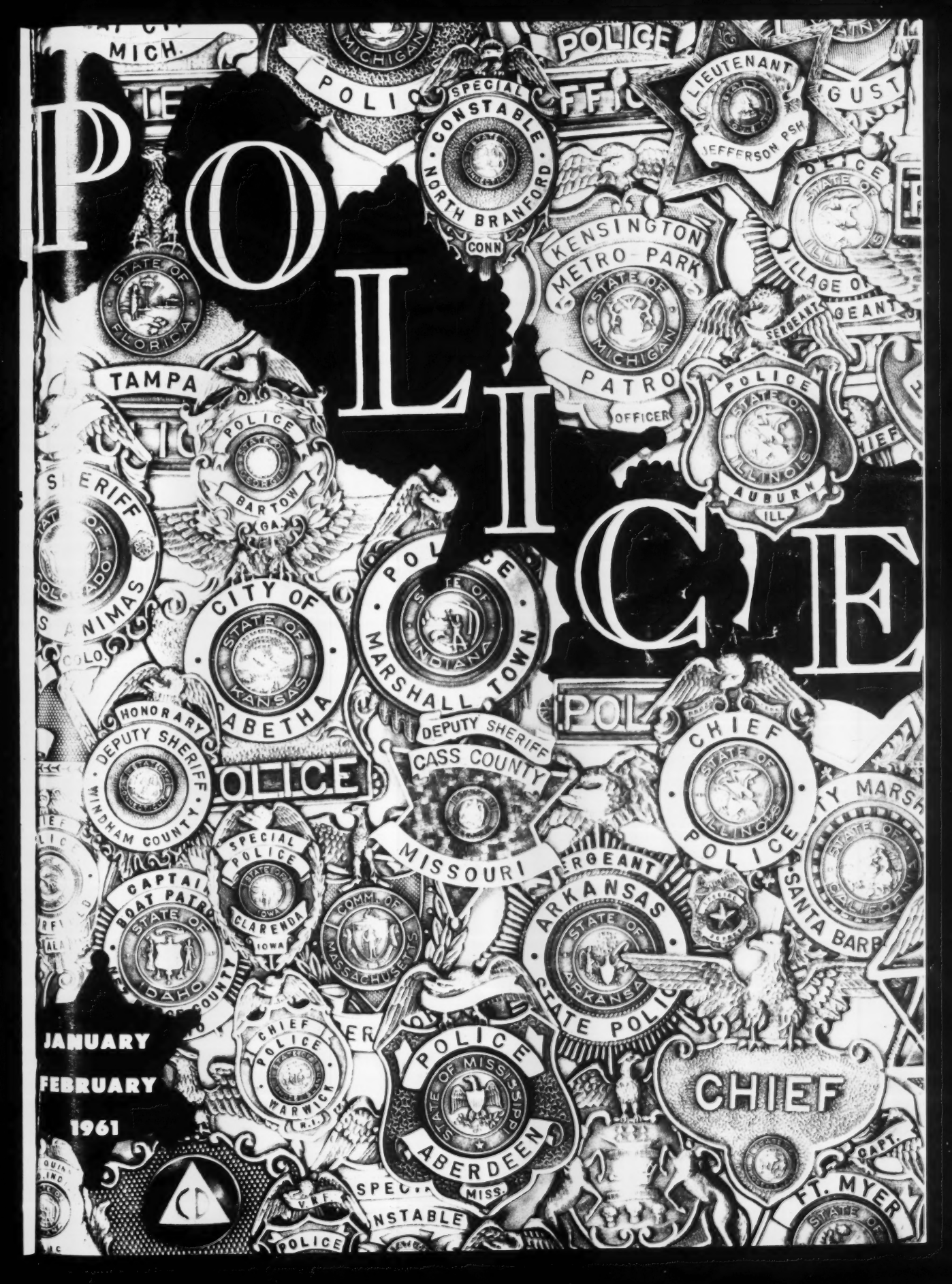
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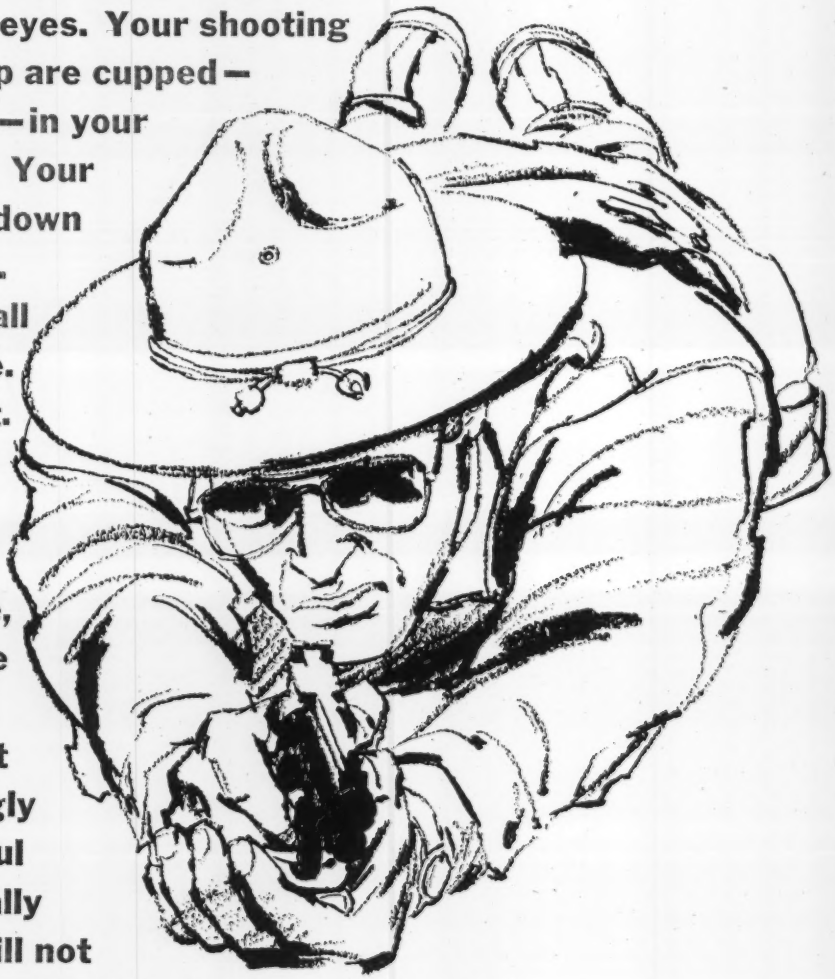

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elsewhere. In addition the agency in which the student is performing the field work can evaluate the student in terms of possible selection for their own organization in the future and also submit an evaluation of the student to the college.

There are several disadvantages of field work. The student spends such a short time with the agency that the insight he gains into its actual operation is so limited as to be almost valueless. The primary function of the college is the academic education of the student. If an extensive field work is included in the program it detracts from the primary goal, and the student is not given enough academic work to insure the development of a sound foundation.

If there is a place for field work in a four year college program it should not be an extensive one and it should in no way infringe upon the primary function of providing the student with all the academic training he will need to successfully undertake any task with which he will be faced when he assumes a position in the field of law enforcement.

BUILDING A SOUND FOUNDATION

Now let us turn to the major problem, that of considering what disciplines should be included in a four year college course in police administration in order to insure the building of a sound foundation.

A college program should permit the student to obtain a broad and fundamental general education before any specialization is allowed. In the lower division, the student should obtain a wide liberal arts education. The overall course should prepare the student for immediate service as a line officer and for the eventual responsibilities he will have to assume as a supervisor and administrator.

In the eleven college programs, three offer no law enforcement classes in their lower division while the other eight offer law enforcement classes varying from nine units to a maximum forty-three units.

The three schools offering no law enforcement classes in lower division are: University of California; Indiana University; University of Southern California.

The following schools offer law enforcement classes in lower division:

TABLE II
LIST OF SCHOOLS OFFERING LAW ENFORCEMENT CLASSES IN LOWER DIVISION

School	*Units/Credits/Hours*
Fresno State College	21
University of Houston	16
Los Angeles State College	11
Long Beach State College	18
Michigan State	4 optional 39
San Jose State College	10
State College of Washington	9
University of Wichita	12

From these statistics it would seem that the majority of schools have seen the need for offering greater specialization and a lesser emphasis on providing a broad liberal arts education.

The knowledge that a student can obtain from other disciplines can be of immeasurable aid to anyone entering the law enforcement field. Individual disciplines can provide the potential officer with valuable data and information which he can apply directly to the many problems with which he will eventually be faced. Other disciplines can furnish the student with the broad background he should obtain from a college education and allow him to pursue particular areas in which he is interested.

Now let us turn to a consideration of some of the specific disciplines which are included in the lower division courses presently offered by the eleven schools. In each instance the following tables are concerned with indicating required courses and not optional. In most instances the school which does not have a particular course in the required category does have it on an optional basis.

TABLE III
ENGLISH

School	*Units/Credits/Hours*
University of California	6 or optional 6 of speech
Fresno State College	3
University of Houston	6
Indiana University	6
Long Beach State College	4
Los Angeles State College	3
Michigan State	9
San Jose State College	5
University of Southern California	6
State College of Washington	6
University of Wichita	6

The need for a basic knowledge of English is without question. Every individual must acquire a fundamental skill in English so he can communicate effectively with others. Some difficulty is encountered in this area when considering what constitutes a required basic course in English. The nine credits of communication skill, as offered by Michigan State, are included because of its close relationship to this field.

TABLE IV
POLITICAL SCIENCE

School	*Units/Credits/Hours*
University of California	6
Fresno State College	3
University of Houston	6
Indiana University	6
Long Beach State College	----
Los Angeles State College	----
Michigan State	----
San Jose State College	3
University of Southern California	2
State College of Washington	9
University of Wichita	6

The majority of the schools offer basic courses under Political Science or Government which provide a general introduction to the nature of government, its forms, theories and a study of the structure and functions of American government.

A basic or introductory survey of the field of general psychology gives the student a necessary foundation in this area prior to pursuing more specific courses such as: The Psychology of Personality; Abnormal Psychology; Social Psychology; etc.

Seven of the schools require one or more basic courses in Sociology which provides a general introduction to the principal concepts and theories such as: culture, personality, status, social group, community, etc.

Basic speech courses give the student a sound foundation in the preparation, organization and delivery of practical speeches. The need for training in the fundamentals of speech is becoming more and more apparent in the field of law enforcement particularly in public relations work.

Introductory American History courses provide a survey from the Colonial period to the present. Five of the schools require a basic course in this field while some of the others offer them on an optional basis.

The disciplines discussed thus far have been suitable for comparison, but the other disciplines which are included in the programs of the eleven schools are so varied that they cannot be studied in this manner.

These other disciplines fall into the following general categories: Biological Sciences; Physical Sciences; Social Sciences; Literature, Philosophy and the Arts.

The specific areas in which courses are offered on either a required or an optional basis in the schools are listed below under these broad categories.

TABLE V
LIST OF OPTIONAL AREAS OF STUDY

Biological Sciences
Anatomy
Anthropology
Bacteriology
Biology
Botany
Physiology
Zoology

Physical Sciences
Astronomy
Chemistry
Geography
Geology
Mathematics
Physics

Social Sciences
Economics
History
Government
Political Science
Public Administration
Psychology
Social Welfare
Sociology

Literature, Philosophy and the Arts
English
Fine Arts
Foreign Language
Music
Philosophy
Speech

Such an array of disciplines offers each student a wide range of choice when he is given alternative or optional courses from which to choose. It is apparent that except for the six areas previously discussed there is little repetition of either required or alternative courses in the programs of the eleven schools.

In addition, further difficulty is encountered when comparing the different school programs, because many times particular courses are not easily placed into specific areas.

The training resources of our universities and colleges are being brought into contact with the personnel requirements of the law enforcement field at an increasing pace.

PROBLEMS

A number of problems in educational preparation for police administration becomes quite apparent from the discussion up to this point. Should educational preparation for police administration be offered at both the lower division and the upper division levels, or should it be confined to upper division? A second problem, stated in the form of a question, is this: Should the colleges and the universities provide specialist training or should they emphasize programs of a more general nature?

The third problem, is whether or not some national committee or organization of law enforcement should establish a recommended list of specific courses which should be included in an undergraduate program? Closely related to this is the question that then arises: Does such a list invade the academic freedom which the individual schools should exert in their undergraduate programs?

These four questions focus attention on the problems facing us in this relatively new field of law enforcement training in institutes of higher learning. The author is not in a position to answer these questions, but they should be carefully studied by a committee composed of educators and practitioners. These questions and others must be answered to dispell the many uncertainties facing this field. Goals and objectives must be firmly established and positive leadership and direction must be furnished in order to meet these goals and obtain the ultimate professionalization for which all of us are working in law enforcement. ★★★

The Sex Killer
A Special Problem Of Investigation

By James M. Reinhardt

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. Reinhardt is Professor of Criminology at the University of Nebraska. Author and lecturer in the fields of Social Psychology, Criminology and Abnormal Behavior, he brings to the task a wide and mature experience in the study of these problems. Recognized as an authority in the field, his services are in continuous demand as a lecturer in law enforcement training programs in all sections of the country.*

These assignments have included, among others, the Homicide Seminar of the Medico-Legal Division of Harvard Medical College and the National Police Academy of the Federal Bureau of Investigation. He is the author of SEX PERVERSIONS AND SEX CRIMES in the Police Science Series, Charles C Thomas, Publisher, and THE MURDEROUS TRAIL OF CHARLES STARKWEATHER, published 1960, in the same series.

The crime of assault, when committed by an unidentified sex pervert, to gratify a perverted *sex* craving, presents some special problems of investigation.

The difficulty inheres in the fact that the urge to attack, sexually, and to kill does not belong anywhere in the field of motives, for assault and murder, with which criminal investigators are most familiar. That is to say, the motive is not provocative in any common sense use of that term. Hence, the investigative officers can not look to some familiar provocative situation, event or object in the outside environment of the murderer for a clue, as for instance, a long standing grudge; a prolonged sense of injustice; jealousy; a will; robbery; perpetration of another crime. The motive is impelled from the inside out. It has no social or inter-personal links with the world outside. It is generated in a morbidly perverted nature, whose cruel cravings have, usually been nursed in fantasy, over a long period of time, behind a surface that has managed to look innocent. More often than not the victim was a stranger to the killer or one whose habits and whereabouts have rarely been associated with him. I am not speaking here of the "confidence" slayers of women, such as the notorious Henri Landru of France, or James B. Watson of the United States. This type makes love, wins, kills, and moves on. The true sex killer is generally a very inept lover, but can be well mannered, gentle, reserved, religious, and is not unusually a little timid. He may have committed other crimes, and may have been caught, but his known criminal offenses more likely than not have never aroused any suspicion that a potential sex killer was at hand.

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While it is true that milder perversions of the nuisance sort rarely give way to far more dangerous proclivities, it is not always so. Generally the exhibitionist remains an exhibitionist; the "peeper" a "peeper"; the homosexual with a yen for adult homosexuals goes on looking for his kind. The fetishist continues his search and keeps to his ritual. But not always. Sometimes the sexually perverted imagination of the peeper, the fetishist, even the exhibitionist, may play upon the most exaggerated scenes. In the course of time these scenes may bring in elements of fiendish cruelty that tend to take over and to dominate the imaginative field. Thus, while the "homicide squad" may spend many fruitless hours on the investigation of known peepers, or suspected fetishists, it might spend more time and "miss the boat" by over-looking them entirely.

Oftentimes the sex and condition of the victim will suggest some investigative lines to start on. If two lovers are found shot to death at the edge of a lonely wood above the river and three hundred yards from the car they had occupied, it might mean a lover's quarrel, a murder and a suicide, or a suicide pact, but an investigator conscious of the way a *voyeau's* imagination works would not assume so and close the investigation. Whatever may be the findings of others, most of the "peepers" that I have studied admitted experiencing certain ecstatic delights from letting the imagination play upon the sexual scenes. However, none would ever admit of thinking about forcing a couple to try sexual intercourse at the point of a gun.

One gentle young man was committed to a state reformatory for assaulting an eighteen year old college girl with a hammer. The young man had known the girl from early childhood, unusual for this type. The two had gone through grade and high school together. On the morning of the assault the young man had waited in the block near the corner where the girl habitually caught the bus. When she appeared he drove up as if quite by accident. With one continuous movement, he put the girl's books in the back seat of the car picked up a hammer previously placed in the seat, and struck the girl in the head twice before she could get out of the car. This all happened on a main city thoroughfare at a busy traffic hour in the morning.

I interviewed the boy and testified in the case. He would not admit an intention to kill the girl, but did explain in response to a question, that he guessed he didn't kill her because the "car-top" impeded his "swing."

Investigation revealed that this boy had a fetish for

women's underwear and had been stealing such apparel from the wardrobes of girls in families where he had been trusted implicitly. No one who knew him could believe that he was a "fetish-thief." The fact that he had assaulted an innocent girl with a hammer was something to baffle the imagination of his closest acquaintances, including a former Sunday school teacher.

The assault occurred on a busy city street. Suppose the assailant had picked the girl up on an unfrequented country road, or on a deserted edge of the city at night: a craftily schemed stroll across the border of a moonlit wood; the hammer concealed under the coat; no car top to deflect the blows. The criminal investigator can only guess what *fetishistic* orgies might have followed.

In the absence of conspicuous evidence from the crime scene, such a case would present some special difficulties. For one thing, no one intimately acquainted with the assailant, in this case, would believe it possible that one so gentle in manner, so sensative to "the finer things of life," could commit such a horrible crime—or any crime. Even though the assailant in the actual hammer attack case was seen in the act of striking the girl, he was observed getting out of the car after the girl had broken free and ran bleeding from the street, and despite the fact that the assailant was arrested hardly forty feet from the crime scene and made no denial of the fact of his guilt, some people who knew him still believed that there had been a mistake—that the wrong man was under arrest. One man said:

"Why that boy wouldn't hurt a fly. I knew him in Sunday school . . . "

A mother insisted that she "would trust him anywhere with her daughter. He was so thoughtful . . . "

"Why," it was said, "he could not have done it; he had never even been arrested."

I am not saying that "gentle people . . . thoughtful people . . . " are to be *suspect* for those reasons. Indeed, some of the most fiendish sex murders known were thoughtless and cruel and hard in almost every act of their lives. I am simply saying that the display of "gentle" qualities is not a sure mark of innocence.

Significantly, the very intimates whose minds would never hit upon the real culprit as even a remote possibility can, quite innocently, turn up very healthy leads.

"He was a very meditative sort of kid" one said, " was interested in the planets, and would sometimes drive his car into the country to study the stars . . . "

Well, the boy drove his car at night all right, but not to "study the stars." On those same "star gazing" nights, women's underwear had a way of disappearing from clothes closets. The disappearances were confined pretty much to the same areas. Some of the same houses were revisited by the thief several times. One of those was the home of the victim of the hammer attack. Her *boudoir* lost not only certain pieces of underwear, but one morning an entire suit "turned up missing." The "gentle" thief later admitted experiencing an orgasm while wearing the clothes in a park. After the suit had served the fetish need, it was removed and stuffed under some debris in a creek. Bit by bit, an assailant's abnormative history may build up out of information given by trusting intimates: his preference for being alone at certain times and in certain places; his interest in the furniture, the murals, and "appointments" in certain homes that he visited "as a friend"; as well as his absence from familiar places at hours when normally he should have been there. Such facts from the daily life of a "nice" man may determine the outcome of the investigation.

The two young ladies in the picture above are having a night out. Who knows whether they will reach their destinations? The sex killer strikes without warning and when and where least expected. Good street lighting is one preventive measure as these "monsters of the night" do not like light.

The wife who quite innocently remarked that her husband had a large mirror attached to the wall in their bedrood and always insisted on having intercourse with the lights on, could well have been giving out, at an inauspicious time, information later needed to solve a *voyeau* assault.

Acquisition of this sort of information can lead down many a dead-end alley, but it is worth the search. Without it, in some types of cases, there is no lead and where there is no lead the case goes down in the book "unsolved." Oftentimes the most telling information is dropped by a wife or child, a neighbor, a fellow employer. Small personality oddities, personality changes, declining interests,

changing moods, absences from home and work, reasons given, changes in credit rating, abnormal breaking away from old friends and associates, etc., may provide openings for exactly the line of interrogation that gets the investigator to what is sometimes metaphorically called "pay-dirt."

Interrogation of the suspect in *sex* assault and homicide cases generally presents something of a special problem of language and tone. This is because the pervert whose *compulsive* madness has finally driven him to assault, or to kill, has, in most instances, long since broken loose from the cultural ties that give meaning to the language and behavior of normal people. The crimes of the habitual criminal; the "professional" thief; the "con" man; even the so-called "criminal psychopath,"—have not carried them beyond the feeling range of every day language. Indeed, without the effective use and feel of such langauge, "career criminality" e.g., operations of the "con" man—could not exist. The pervert who assaults and kills, for a *sex* purpose has generally lived so long in a world of morbid and cruel fantasies that, in spite of a harmless looking surface, he is, for all actual feeling purposes, socially and psychologically, in isolation. He may show marks of sentimentality and appreciation of beauty. He may exhibit the marks of a deeply felt religion, but inside he is sentimentally and religiously bankrupt. By the time he kills to gratify a *sex* craving, the personality, with its sentiment and religion, have been absorbed by, and have collapsed around, the perversion. Tensions and compulsive desires have often driven him to seek one morbid form of gratification after another. The constructive will is gone. It is gone because the *compulsive* nature of the process is irreversible. There is no interest left strong enough to compete with *compulsive* perversion. Remembered joys outside the field of perversion fade away. The course is, in varying degrees, usually a retreat from a conscious interest in the world of reality into a twilight zone. Fantasy is employed more and more. Finally reality, for all dynamic purposes, is lost. The perversion has anesthetized the killer to any feeling for the victim—to any capacity to imagine the victim's pain. This seems true, not only of so-called "lust killers," who mutilate the victim's body, but also of other perverts who attack and kill to gratify a sex demand, as e.g. the *fetishist* who kills in anticipation of a fetish orgy, with the fetish objects taken from the lifeless victim.

The good investigator can imagine the mental processes of the jealous killer; the rejected spouse or lover. He can adapt his language and manner to the "sad sense of desolation" of such a one. The trained investigator can adapt to the burgler, the robber, even the rapist who kills to escape, or to liquidate a potential source of identification. The true *sex* killer, such as I have had in mind here, presents a different problem of language and behavior adaptation.

No normal man can actually capture the feel of the *sex* killer's world. Something can be learned by studying the responses of perverts who have killed, or attempted to kill to gratify the demands of a *sex* perversion, or who have dreamed about and imagined murderous scenes, with a sexual delight.

The following suggestions are derived from interview studies of eight such perverts, only two of whom succeeded in killing the victim.

1) The investigation is almost certain to lose some ground—ground difficult to recover—if the *suspect* sees signs of shock, or horrified amazement in the manner and language of the investigator.

2) Hard as it may be to simulate some sign of sympathetic understanding for the "poor fellow" caught in a trap of such physic drives it may tend to mitigate the suspect's anxieties and release his inhibitions. The *suspect* may be made to feel that "after all, the interrogator has had urges of (his) own . . . (his) imagination is not dead."

3) It is well to give the *suspect* a lot of room to lie about things; about other crimes; about himself; his past; his family; etc. The lies are wasted, however, unless kept for later use.

4) Look for some "meeting ground" outside the field of the perversion and away from the crime scene. Even though small, it opens a chance for "small talk." A chance for "small talk" sometimes gets things said that could never be drawn out by continuous barrages of interrogation.

5) In general, a slow meditative language; some trap of such *psychic* drives, it may tend to mitigate the adapted to the unreasonably morbid moods of the *sex* killer. It must be remembered that once the sex perversion has come to the killing stage, the capacity to feel "like a murderer,"—even a hard, remorseless one, is gone.

Sex killers, and "would-be" killers, vary in the way they feel. Whether brutally remorseless, or whether morbidly melancholie, the feeling can not separate itself from the absorbing perversity that impelled the pervert to kill. He did not kill for money, for status, for jealousy or for any reason that binds him to a value, thing or object. He is incapable of remorselessness or regret that in any way links him to a value, a thing or object.

6) As in the interrogation in other kinds of homicide cases, it is important to avoid confusing the suspect. Confusion seems particularly easy to start in the interrogation of the *sex* killer, and the damage caused by it may be especially difficult to repair. Short questions—single clause sentences—should be employed, at least in the beginning stages; for it must be remembered that the mind of the sex murderer has been given over to grotesque and cruel fantasies much of the time. In such states the mind does not function according to any familiar reality principle. The importance of employing short precise questions at the outset of the interrogation is not, however, solely in the fact that long complicated questions confuse the subject, but also because his unpalatably extravagant responses to long complicated questions, may be of no help at all to the interrogator.

7) It is usually unwise, moreover, in the early stages of the investigation, to remind the suspect that he has crossed himself up. By all odds, he should never be told immediately that he is lying. All the lying; the self-contradictions; the incoherencies; will be very useful later after the "field" and the "man" in it, have been established.

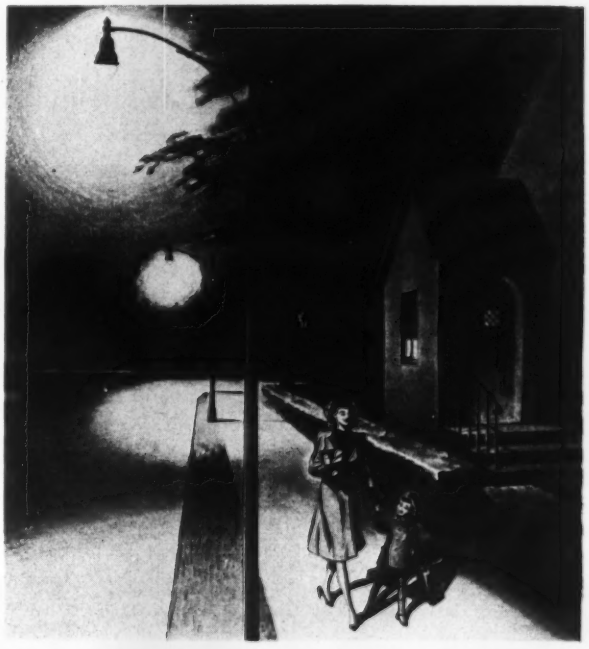
8) It is generally well to avoid breaking in with a suggestion, or a second or supplementary question, while the *suspect* is responding to a question already asked. This, I believe, is generally good practice in any interrogation of a criminal suspect. It is especially important in the investigation of *sex* homicide suspects. Wait till he finishes, or "runs out." Then, if necessary, repeat the same question in a somewhat different form. Explain that there is something that you "did not quite understand." That is for the first stages of the interrogation. Later: tear into the *suspect* with all you have. Present facts that point directly to him. Let him try to work his way out without interruption. Then come again with the full weight of everything that may give the *suspect* the feel of being wrecked by himself.

The sex killer is afraid of himself. He has no confidence in his own inner strength. Once he feels that he has been discovered for what he is, the fictitious surface is likely to give way fast.

9) In the search for a "genuine" *suspect,* children can often be very helpful. But they must be interviewed by an understanding investigator—one familiar with the imaginative ways and language uses of children. A suggestion that might induce helpful responses from an adult might send a child's imagination off on a hopelessly prodigal spree.

The child should be asked simple questions about places, friends, and about what they have seen and heard. Children frequently know much more about what goes on in the neighborhood and in the neighborhood families than their parents know. They can give many facts about what happens to children away from home and in school that the teacher and parents can not know. They know the kind of car that stopped off the school ground at the lunch hour; which child was absent repeatedly and always returned on time "unnoticed;" who got in the car at the edge of the park; who was away from home, and what the children in the house had to say about his or her absences, returns, personal habits, what he or she said and how and why it was said. Such things, often meaningless to a child, may be critical in the investigation.

It is always important to remember that the *sex* killer kills in a fiendish move to gratify a morbid *sex* hunger totally alien to the imagination of normal men. The *compulsive* force of this morbid hunger has cut the killer free from feeling responses to normal appeals and controls. His language, under interrogation, is the language of one incapable of experiencing the motive responses of criminals who kill for reasons that "link" them to something that has "social," love, prestige or even danger significance



Many women feel that no one will molest them if they are walking with a child. This is a false sense of security. The compulsive force of morbid hunger which motivates the "sex killer," divorces him from normal patterns of behavior and he will attack even when others are present.

for them, in the world outside. The *sex* killer's motives are simply not understandable in *"social,"* personal status or prestige terms. What is more, the real *sex* killer is incapable of identifying himself with the suffering of the victim. Rather more likely, the process operates in reverse in his mind. That is, he identifies the victim with his own fiendishly gratifying excitement. Hence, it is generally more than a waste of effort to try to break down the *sex* killer's resistance by appeals to consicence, or to a sense of regret for the suffering caused the unfortunate victim.

On the basis of my own interviews with sex criminals, I would suggest that ground can sometimes be gained by maneuvering the *suspect* into a position of feeling himself a participant in the investigation. I have in some instances, found the *subject,* quite unsuspectingly, unwinding his own inner motivational content in a rather prideful attempt to exhibit his rare comprehension of the "incomprehensible."

George Lee, the seventeen year old who mutilated an eight year old boy and then masterbated beside the expiring body, told me that, "a fellow who'd do that would have to imagine the thrill of it before doing it . . . " A prisoner who had been several times convicted of burglary and forgery, but never for a *sex* offense, gave his version of the way a "fellow must feel" when he plans, or engages in, the seduction of a young boy. He later admitted sixteen seductions of more than half as many boys.

FOOTNOTE: *Pictures appearing with this article were by courtesy of the Highway Safety Lighting Bureau, Cleveland, Ohio.*

Police Reserves?

By R. Bruce Holmgren

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Not the least among those problems in the American field attracting continued attention is the question of organizing and maintaining a police reserve force. Readers will recall an article on this subject under the title, A STUDY OF THE USE OF POLICE RESERVES OR AUXILIARIES, by Chief Jacob A. Jessup of the Department of Public Safety, Sunnyvale, California, which appeared in the January-February 1960 issue of the Journal. The author of the present article and Chief Jessup appear to be substantially in agreement in questioning the advisability of a reserve force.*

Reflecting another point of view, a convincing book, THE AUXILIARY POLICE UNIT, Its Organization and Administration, by Lieutenant Everett M. King of the Alameda County Sheriff's Department, Oakland, California, by Charles C Thomas, Publisher, and released in 1960. The Editor invites articles for publication from other observers concerning this question.

R. Bruce Holmgren graduated from Northwestern University with a B. A. degree in 1942. In 1949 he graduated from Chicago-Kent College of Law with an LL. B. degree. A businessman and lawyer he is vice president of the Angus J. Ray Publishing Company of Chicago and is editor of Package Engineering, a nationally circulated business magazine. Prior to entering the publishing business Mr. Holmgren was for two years a member of the operating staff of the Chicago Crime Commission. He has a certificate in municipal police administration from International City Managers Association. During World War II he was an Army policeman. Upon his return from service he joined the Evanston Police Reserve and served in all ranks including that of chief. During the Korean incident he conducted training classes for the volunteer group of the Illinois State Police, in Cook County. As superintendent of police reserve of the Lake Bluff, Illinois, Police Department he trained and directed an eight-man reserve unit. Since that time he has conducted classes for the Evanston Police Department in criminal law and police procedures. Mr. Holmgren is the author of PRIMARY POLICE FUNCTIONS. He is a member of the Chicago, Illinois and State and American Bar Associations and Phi Delta Phi legal fraternity.

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If your department is keeping pace with policing's steady march toward professionalism you may not need a police reserve. Regardless of the success of some reserve groups around the country, my experience with three such organizations prompts me to caution you not to start one—unless your community is too small to support a numerically adequate department of qualified fulltime officers.

All this may seem heresy coming from a once staunch proponent of police reserve usage but changing conditions call for a new view. The fact is that in most places circumstances justifying a police reserve no longer exist. Successful use of a reserve force ten or fifteen years ago is no guarantee of its meeting today's challenges.

Obviously these assertions rest on our maintaining "normal" conditions – without war, disaster or full-scale emergency. Also, let us assume we are not trying to meet a stopgap situation such as using volunteers to supplement the day-to-day work of a numerically depleted department.

In Evanston, Illinois, our 110-man police reserve, an outgrowth of a wartime 220-man "emergency police" force, helped fill quite a few gaps while the undermanned regular police department was rebuilding its strength after the war. But in time the need for a reserve disappeared—and so did the reserve.

On the other hand, several years ago we established a reserve to supplement the four-man department in Lake Bluff, Illinois, a suburban village of 2,500 lying high above Lake Michigan some 35 miles north of Chicago. The eight survivors of the selection and training process made a reserve group that proved quite useful in assisting the fulltime police department. But like many another small, residential community, Lake Bluff is growing fast. Its evolution into a bustling suburb will bring about an increase in the paid police force—with less need of a reserve.

A third example represents merely a standby effort. During the Korean days when no one was quite sure what was going to happen next the Illinois Department of Public Safety established its V.A.S.P. (Volunteer Auxiliary State Police) and we trained its members in a variety of police fundamentals. But most of these men have had little if any opportunity to do any police work.

MANAGING A POLICE RESERVE

Status or Organization

Regardless of how the unit exists from a legal or departmental organization point of view, when you look at the structural and functional organization through the eyes of the individual reserve member, several primary considerations come into focus. At the same time so do some major problems that go to the roots of any decision to have or not have a police reserve.

You must give the citizen volunteer policeman legal status and authority commensurate with the extent to which you plan to let him risk his neck in the service of the department. If you cannot or do not wish to give him adequate authority and police

status, you ought not let him do police work. The job is hazardous enough for a competent professional.

Some police reserve units, especially those of a civilian defense variety, train and equip men for little more than the simplest kind of auxiliary support work and very limited traffic direction. Others give them the same authority, equipment, uniform and insignia as regular policemen. Some groups have a sufficiently effective selection and training process to warrant this. Others fall short of this.

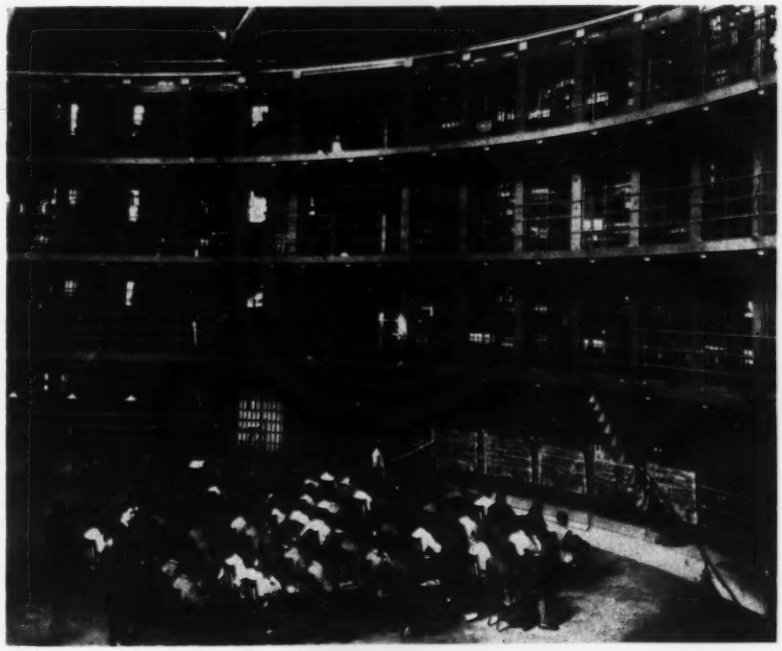
But from the standpoint of the reservist, unless you want to train him and equip him for full-scale activity, don't let him come in at all. Even the best of police reserves chafe under the limitation of hyphenated police status. At the same time most chiefs balk at letting civilian volunteer policemen have full authority and carry weapons.

Selection of Members

The volunteer nature of a police reserve force makes it inevitably a mixture of part governmental, part fraternal, and perhaps part political activity. This poses a problem for the police administrator even when he has the most dedicated of reserves passing on their own members and officers. The reserves normally expect to run their own group. If the police department elects to do this job for the reserves it faces a possibly burdensome administrative load.

The dilemma for the police executive is that if he lets the reserves manage their own group he loses a degree of control. This is true no matter how good the reserve heads are – and some of them try beyond expectations to do a good job of it– especially the selection process. In our old Evanston Police Reserve the patrolmen elected the sergeants in their districts. The sergeants elected the district lieutenants. The lieutenants from the five districts elected the captain and chief. These seven officers made up the executive committee whose members passed on all applicants.

. . . THEN . . .



. . . and NOW . . .

Upper photo shows a class attending the first school at Stateville Penitentiary, Joliet, Illinois, in late 1930's.

Compare with lower photo showing a vocational school class studying television under the direction of Mr. McKnight, at Stateville Penitentiary, Joliet, Illinois, 1959. Photos courtesy of Joseph Ragen, Warden, Stateville Penitentiary.

Diligent inquiries prior to voting on applicants prompted one exasperated presiding officer to throw up his hands. In frustration he told his committee: "If the Angel Gabriel came down and applied for membership one of you lieutenants would find a reason for not taking him in."

But in spite of this selectivity the reserve group faces a basic restriction: It is limited to the caliber and qualification of men who present themselves for this sort of activity. They apply from a variety of motives, not all of which are consistent with the goals of a police department.

Discipline, along with selection, is a problem. In spite of your best efforts every so often you have a member who does not conduct himself in the exemplary manner you would like. In a volunteer organization about all you can do with an unfaithful standard bearer is to separate him from the group. Sometimes an individual has political connections that make even the most elementary discipline a delicate matter.

Incidentally, the first night of taking applications for the particular unit of the Illinois V.A.S.P. which it was my opportunity to help train, around a hundred men showed up. Subsequently we lost about half of these when they found out no stars were forthcoming and that there was no prospect of full-fledged police power and the authority to carry weapons. Those who stuck with the program did so out of interest in policing and a desire for civic service. It was a long time before they got anything as tangible as badges and auto decals.

Training

Experience with three reserve groups convinces me that your best guarantee of having the right sort of member is to make the training so rigorous that only those having real interest, stamina and proper motivation can survive. In Lake Bluff the surviving members of the program got through thirty-nine hours of classroom instruction, with mandatory note-taking (we looked at their notebooks to see that they contained required information basic to the police task) and a three-hour written examination.

They received instruction in judo, unarmed defense and the use of police weapons. Practical first aid work and on-the-street training in the squad car also supplemented the thirty-nine hour program. Our object was to make these men fairly well qualified to perform within three or four months most of the basic tasks of a policeman in a suburb of 2,500.

Training in Evanston after the war and in the state group was not as thorough because of lack of facilities. However, the original volunteers in Evanston, who manned the emergency police and backstopped the department during the time so many of us were in military service got many months of classroom and on-duty instruction.

An obvious stumbling block to the effective training of a police reserve is that students and instructors have only so much time to devote to the work. Further, too much of the training is passive (lectures, films and the like) although the small size of our group in Lake Bluff helped us bridge the gap between classroom training and actual duty.

Instruction on the street included letting reserves take turns directing traffic Sunday afternoons at a busy intersection in the village. In larger places this might be difficult to do. Perhaps the best approach is to try out new men at the least busiest posts during times the reserves are functioning.

Reasons for Participation

Police administrators must remember that men joining a reserve bring to it varying degrees of interest and many reasons for being reserve policemen. Recognition of these interest ranges lets you plan just how far you can go with a reserve program. For example, we had reserves in Evanston who turned out just three times a year — to assist policing the Memorial Day and Fourth of July parades and to help in their district of the city in policing on Halloween night. They felt it was their civic duty and their giving up the better part of two holidays bore this out.

Others made themselves available for additional duty and some showed up so often as to be regular participants in the policing process. It is hard to tell where a sense of duty ends and a desire for police activity as an avocation starts. Incidentally, some of the most zealous members require the fullest of supervision, lest their enthusiasm for the police job carry them into situations beyond their ability.

By the way, practically every man applying for a police reserve appointment will cite "civic duty" or "service to the community" as his reason for wanting in. It was quite refreshing one night in Evanston when an applicant listed "for a hobby" as his reason for applying.

Motives for joining and degrees of enthusiasm have a real bearing on the success of a reserve program. The police department will expect the reserve leaders to turn out their men when a call to duty comes. As months and years pass enthusiasm wanes and a reserve supervisor has to be quite convincing in persuading many a member of known ability to respond to duty. No matter how quasi-military a reserve organization seems to be you must remember that it is still a volunteer group.

Performance of Duty

Getting the reserves onto the street for duty sometimes blends imperceptably with training — especially since reserves usually team up with regular officers. This can be fine training or it can be a real stumbling block—depending on how well the regulars want the reserves to do.

A common fault is to put one reserve in a squad car with two regulars. He gets into the back seat and thus misses out on a lot of the conversation. Experienced reserve leaders see that the reserve sits in front.

Mention of two-man teams suggests a major reason for not having a police reserve. As the trend toward general use of one-man patrols (except in special situations) continues, having a reserve as a second man in the car (except for purely training purposes) creates a conflict with a prime police management objective—to use manpower efficiently. The alternative is to turn a reserve loose in a squad car by himself. Few reserves have the background, experience and judgment meriting such as assignment.

Actually, it might surprise many police administrators to know how effective a capable reserve officer can be. Especially in the smaller communities the reserves have handled a full range of police duty – with and without the company of regular police officers.

Supervising the Reserves

Hand in hand with duty performed is the supervision of the reserve—not merely by the police department but by the reserve leaders themselves. Especially while they are fairly new at the job the reserve policemen look to their own officers for guidance—possibly more so than to the supervisors of the police department itself.

This makes supervision by police department officers difficult. You get the impression the reserves regard the regular policemen (other than the highest ranks) as advisers or partners – but not leaders. All reserves profess allegiance to the regular department and its command officers but in fact they rely on their own reserve leaders to a major extent.

On one occasion two members of a reserve group declined to accept an assignment from the second in command of the department without checking with me, as their reserve head. This literal an interpretation of the principle of unity of command can lead to friction!

Overall Direction and Control

Probably the hardest part of having a reserve unit, from the standpoint of the police administrator, is keeping track of what the reservist does and how he conducts himself other than when on police duty. A major difficulty is that reserves help themselves to police tasks wherever they chance to find them—and often without adequate experience to do the job. Chiefs with reserve units at times have difficulty with reserves stopping cars, doing free lance traffic enforcement and serving as a neighborhood Solomon.

The trouble is that the reserves take their cue from the dedicated professionals who are policemen every minute of the time and never hesitate to step into a situation, whether on duty or off. Comparatively few reserves are qualified to do this and too many of them try it simply because they see the regulars do it. They feel that if they are to be policemen in fact as well as in name they must pitch in and lend a hand just as would a regular upon finding something calling for police action.

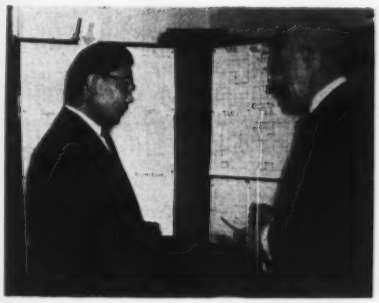
So if you must have a police reserve you should (1) develop its members to handle any situation arising in your community, or (2) teach them the hazards and limitations involved in trying to do too much. This means more than merely issuing orders or trying to inhibit them through vivid accounts of pitfalls police officers may encounter. In other words you *educate* them to stay within the limits of their training and ability, however, much or little that may be.

A major problem of direction and control is that reserves frequently expect some sort of fringe benefit, such as being able to carry a star or badge (if not a pistol), display some sort of auto identification, or being able to join a police organization ordinarily open only to regular policemen. At the same time you will find some of your ablest reserves the ones least interested in the trappings of office.

It is hard to say just how far a reserve member may go in using his membership for personal benefit, such as to win consideration when enmeshed in a traffic violation. But it seems fair to suggest that the regular department sets the standards in these matters and reserves usually stay within the same bounds which the regulars do.

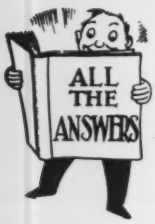
If regular officers display auto stickers, flash their stars for personal advantage or use their credentials for private gain reserves are likely to try the same tactics. If the regulars from the chief down meet the strictest standards of conduct, the reserves will fall in line. Our point is that in any given community the reservist is not likely to take any more unofficial advantage of his position than he sees regular department members taking.

Further, you should remember that the reserve member is contributing time, talent and energy to what he feels is a civic duty. (It is pure coincidence the work is an engrossing avocation!) Therefore it is only human nature for him to expect his reserve status to come to his rescue if he finds himself in a situation calling for, say, arrest for a traffic offense. If you don't want him doing this, don't have a reserve force.



Gerald O'Connell (right), director of training, the Traffic Institute, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill., explains the Institute's training program to Commissioner Khin Maung Maung of the Rangoon, Burma, City Police. Commissioner Maung spent two days at the Institute on his way to the Washington, D. C., International Assoc. of Chiefs of Police conference.

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The second in this interesting series of two articles by R. B. Holmgren will appear in the next issue of POLICE.*



A Comparative Examination of Performance Rating Forms Used By Police Agencies

By Allen P. Bristow

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The author's law enforcement experience includes service with the Corps of Military Police, the San Fernando Police Department and the Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department, where he held the rank of Sergeant. He recently accepted a position on the faculty of the Department of Police Science and Administration at Los Angeles State College. Professor Bristow holds the Associate of Arts degree in Police Science, B. A. degree in Sociology and the M. S. degree in Public Administration with Law Enforcement as the area of concentration. He is currently completing the requirements for the Doctor of Public Administration at the University of Southern California. This is the third in a series of four articles dealing with police personnel rating procedure, a problem that besets police administrators and supervisors, and one that is of important concern to the rated—the men in the ranks.*

THIS is the third in a series of reports on Police Performance Rating. In May, 1957, George Beck while gathering material for his Master's Thesis at the University of Southern California, surveyed the two hundred-fifty-two municipal police departments in the United States serving populations of 50,000 or more to determine the general status of performance rating.[1] This author conducted a follow-up survey in February, 1958, which included the one hundred-forty-four county sheriff's departments which serve un-incorporated populations of 50,000 or more and forty-eight state police and highway patrols. Also included were the nineteen special police districts which were responsible for law enforcement in similar population areas. Typical of these special district police agencies are the Chicago Park District Police, Port of New York Authority Police, and the Department of the Interior Indian Police.

All agencies surveyed were requested to return copies of their performance rating forms with the questionnaire. These forms were then examined to determine: (1) the type of form used; (2) the number and type of traits included, and (3) the grading scale used for the traits. A total of 132 forms were examined for content.

1 George N. Beck: *A Preliminary Study of Performance Rating Systems In Use by Municipal Police Agencies in Cities Over 50,000 in Population.* (Published Master's thesis, The Donner Foundation, The University of Southern California, Los Angeles, 1958).

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TYPE OF FORM USED

Four general types of rating forms were identified and classified on a basis of the manner in which the rating was completed. Some forms combined several or all of the types identified, but were classified on a basis of the majority of their content, ie: a combination graphic and open end form was classified as a graphic form if the graphic portion exceeded the open end portion.

Table I presents a comparison of the types of rating forms used by the four classifications of police agencies selected for study.

TABLE I
TYPE OF RATING FORM USED

Type of Agency	*Graphic Scale*	*Check List*	*Open End*	*Field Review*	*Total*
County Sheriff and County Police Departments	10	3	1	0	14
State Police and Highway Patrol Departments	25	1	2	0	28
Municipal Police Departments	51	10	23	1	85
Special District Police Departments	3	2	0	0	5
TOTAL	89	16	26	1	132

GRAPHIC RATING SCALE

The graphic rating form presents a trait to the rater and requires the rater to indicate the degree to which the employee compares with the trait. A typical graphic trait is presented below.

	Needs Improvement	Acceptable	Outstanding
LOYALTY	X		

While most graphic forms require the rater to mark a point on a scale which ranges from good to bad, others required the rater to award a numerical score to the employee, where the numerical distance is substituted for a scale. This type of graphic rating is presented below.

(Range 1 to 5)
LOYALTY (3)
PUNCTUALITY (5)
APPEARANCE (3)
ACCURACY (4)

A great majority (89) of the forms indicated the use of graphic rating scales.

OPEN END RATING FORMS

The open end form presents a question to the rater who must write the answer on the form. Such a form does not lend itself to numerical tabulation, but permits a much more descriptive evaluation than the graphic form. Examples of the open end rating form are presented below.

How well does this officer prepare cases for court?

_____

_____

How well does this officer care for his equipment?

_____

_____

The open end rating form ranked second to the graphic rating scale with twenty-six departments reporting its use.

CHECK LIST RATING FORM

The check list form presents the rater with a large number of phrases. The rater must check the phrases that describe the employee. The phrases have a code value, usually unknown to the rater, which tabulate into a numerical score for each employee. A typical check list appears below.

( ) Always on time.
(X) Never complains.
( ) Frequently makes errors on reports.
(X) Uniform dirty on occasion.
( ) Pistol scores above average.

The check list form was used by sixteen of the reporting police agencies. While no comments were made on the questionnaires regarding this type of form, one possible objection to it's use might be that it seems not to be all inclusive. To rate a patrolman, radio operator, detective, teletype operator, and other police employees in an objective manner on such a form might be quite difficult.

FIELD REVIEW

This type of rating form contains blank spaces in which each supervisor writes an evaluation of the employee. Such essay type entries must be quite time consuming and this perhaps accounts for it's use by only one agency.

TYPE OF TRAITS USED

All graphic rating forms were examined to determine the type of traits which were used. Some discretion was used when similarities existed, for instance both the trait "Contact with citizens" and "Treatment of the public" were tabulated under "Public relations."

A total of sixty-six traits were isolated and are presented in Table II. It must be noted that the trait "Miscellaneous Supervision" covers all supervisory traits and indicates the number of forms which bore such traits, not the actual number of traits.

The traits marked with an asterisk (*) on Table II are those which pertain specifically to police duties. It is of interest to note the large number of general and ambiguous traits used as compared with the few really descriptive traits which relate to police tasks. Firearms ability was a trait on only twelve forms, investigative ability on nine, and ability as a witness on sixteen.

It is also of interest to note that the most popular traits, "Initiative," "Judgement," "Quality of work," and "Quantity of work" are traits on which it must be most difficult to judge a patrolman. "Initiative" or acting without instructions might result in a mistake which could also be graded under "Judgement." In such a case would a patrolman be awarded a high grade for "Initiative" and a low grade for "Judgement?"

Such a dichotomy is also presented in the traits "Quantity" and "Quality." A rater must certainly rely on some numerical objectivity when considering these traits, yet how is the patrolman to be graded for "Quantity of Work" when he makes no arrest, issues no citations yet has the most crime free beat in the area due to the excellence of his suppressive patrol. It would seem, both from the comments on the questionnaires and an examination of the forms, that much could be done to replace general and undefinable traits with a task list or duty statement that relates closely to police functions.

TRAIT SCALES

Examination of the graphic rating forms reveals that the great majority of trait scales contain five choices or degrees. These five degrees are usually: (1) unsatisfactory, (2) needs improvement, (3), acceptable, (4) excellent and (5) outstanding.

Those scales which contain only three degrees usually involve symbolism: (1) — indicating improvement needed, (2) $\surd$ indicating standard performance, and (3) + indicating superior performance. The scales containing four degrees are quite similar to the five degree scale, usually dropping "needs improvement."

Any trait scale range which exceeded five in number was a numerical value range where the rater is asked to assign a number from one to ten to each trait, etc. Table III presents a comparison of the range of trait scales used on graphic rating forms by the agencies submitting forms.

TABLE III

TRAIT SCALE RANGE
Degrees of Choice

Type of Agency	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6 or more*	*Total*
County Sheriff and County Police Depts.	1	3	6	0	10
State Police and Highway Patrol Depts.	4	1	20	0	25
Municipal Police Depts.	2	6	32	11	51
Special District Police Depts.	1	0	2	0	3
Total	8	10	60	11	89

TABLE II

RATING TRAITS USED

Trait	State Police and Highway Patrol Departments	County Sheriff and County Police Departments	Municipal Police Departments	Special District Departments	Total
Accuracy	5	4	8	0	14
Adaptability	3	3	7	1	17
Administrative ability	0	0	2	0	2
Analytical ability	4	1	2	0	7
Appearance and neatness	13	5	39	2	59
Attention to duty	6	2	4	0	12
Attitude towards work	9	5	36	1	51
Capacity to develop	1	0	6	0	7
Care of equipment	20	3	20	1	44
Conduct	8	0	6	1	15
Confidence	0	0	1	0	1
Cooperation and tact	11	4	39	2	55
Courage	3	1	5	0	9
Courtesy	1	0	6	0	7
Criticism, accepting	1	0	1	0	2
Dependability	11	5	26	0	42
Development of informants*	0	0	2	0	2
Efficiency on assignment	1	0	2	0	3
Emotional stability	1	1	2	0	4
Favoritism	0	0	2	0	2
Firearms ability*	4	0	8	0	12
Force*	2	0	11	0	13
Industry	7	1	13	0	21
Initiative	16	5	46	2	69
Intelligence	5	0	14	0	19
Instructions, following	4	0	14	0	18
Integrity	2	0	2	0	4
Interest in work	5	2	11	1	19
Inter-personal relations	6	6	33	0	45
Interviewing ability	0	0	2	0	2
Investigative ability*	4	0	4	1	9
Judgment	13	0	4	1	9
Knowledge of duties	15	4	35	0	54
Leadership	10	1	11	0	22
Loyalty	9	1	20	1	31
Memory	0	0	1	0	1
Morale	0	0	4	0	4
Obedience to laws and regulations	1	1	3	0	5
Organization of work	7	0	6	0	13
Performance of duty	2	1	14	0	17
Personality (and/or temperament)	5	6	22	0	33
Physical fitness	6	3	22	1	32
Planning ability	1	0	1	0	2
Potentiality	3	0	3	0	6
Presence of mind	1	0	5	0	6
Pressure, ability to work under	0	0	3	0	3
Promotability	1	1	25	0	27
Public relations	13	3	11	1	28
Punctuality	7	1	22	2	32
Quality of work	14	7	45	1	67
Quantity of work	12	7	40	0	59
Reaction to new ideas	0	1	1	0	2
Reliability	2	1	4	0	7
Report writing*	6	1	18	1	26
Resourcefulness	5	2	4	0	11
Responsibility, willingness to accept	0	0	7	0	7
Safety mindedness	2	0	5	0	7
Service commendations	0	0	2	0	2
Speech	2	2	3	0	7
Speed in work	0	0	5	0	5
Sobriety	0	0	2	0	2
Surveillance ability*	0	0	3	0	3
Traffic knowledge*	3	0	4	1	8
Witness, ability as*	3	0	8	0	11
Work habits	5	5	7	1	18
Miscellaneous supervision	13	6	41	1	61

*Indicates trait directly related to police work.

Total number of rating traits—66

NUMBER OF TRAITS

The number of traits on the graphic rating forms ranged from five to thirty-six. Table IV presents a comparison of the number of traits used by the contributing agencies. A definite cluster will be noted at between ten and twelve traits. Several reasons for this cluster may be observed when examining individual rating forms. Using both sides of the form, and allowing space for instructions and signature, the maximum number of traits which may be listed is rarely greater than twelve. The second most obvious reason for this cluster is observed on many forms which award a numerical score to the trait. Ten traits obviously lend themselves to percentage computation with more ease than any other similar number.

TABLE IV

NUMBER OF TRAITS USED

Type of Agency	*3-4*	*5-6*	*7-9*	*10-12*	*13-15*	*16-17*	*18-19*	*20-25*	*26 or more*
County Sheriff and County Police Depts.	0	2	0	3	0	1	0	1	3
State Police and Highway Patrol Depts.	0	2	2	8	6	1	1	2	3
Municipal Police Depts.	3	10	9	28	12	4	1	4	2
Special District Police Depts.	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	0
Total	3	15	11	39	18	6	4	7	8

SUMMARY

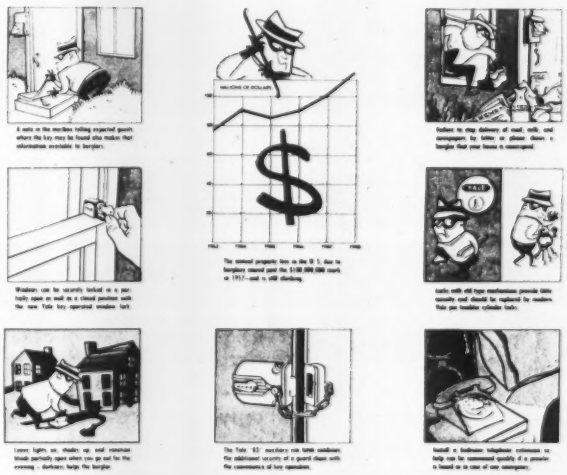
An explanation of the rating forms indicates that a great majority of the law enforcement agencies surveyed utilize a graphic rating form. The majority of these forms contain a range of from seven to fifteen traits and permit the rater five degrees of discretion in rating the employee on each trait, ranging from unsatisfactory to outstanding. The traits on the forms were mostly general in nature. Only in a few instances were specific tasks listed as traits. ★★★

Danger—Burglars

Your home is menaced by an ever-present threat of burglary unless you personally act to stop burglars. In the time it takes you to read this article three burglaries will be committed in the United States. You could be victimized by one of them.

Below are suggestions made by Yale & Towne, showing property owners how they can "burglar-proof" their homes and cut down the burglary rate.

1. Keep at least two interior lights on when you leave the house for an evening.
2. Leave shades up when vacating the house and notify neighbors and police you are taking a trip. Ask neighbors to pick up all mail and circulars so that your house has a "lived in" look.
3. Never notify the society editor of your local newspaper that you are planning a trip. Inform the editor about your vacation after you have returned.
4. Call police to check on all strange solicitors not carrying proper credentials.
5. Have a bedroom telephone extension installed so that you can summon help immediately in case of night-time prowlers or other emergency.
6. Make certain that basement and second story windows are just as securely locked as those on the first floor.
7. Keep ladders locked in the garage, or if they must be kept outside, fasten them securely to the house or garage with a length of chain and a Yale padlock.
8. Don't depend on cheaply made locks to protect your valuables.



9. Normally, residential exterior doors should be hung with hinges on the inside. If for any reason it is necessary for hinges to be on the outside of an exterior door, make certain that the hinges are of a type specially constructed so that the pins cannot be removed by a burglar.

Of course, the best way to prevent loss from burglary is NOT to keep valuables in your home. Burglars count on homeowners ignoring this sound rule.

The astounding one a minute burglary rate will only decrease in direct proportion to the vigilance and "preventative lock security" maintained by the householder himself. ★★★

COMBAT SHOOTING

POLICE FIREARMS — AMMUNITION — SHOOTING TECHNIQUES

Edited by Paul B. Weston

Before The Last Resort

By Francis L. Martello

A Police officer has many available devices to prevent the use of his last resort—his firearm. An alert and alert and cautious officer can reduce hazards and prevent attacks upon himself.

The use of restraining devices should be employed by officers as they will reduce the possibility of physical resistance or escape, which would possibly require the officer to use his firearm. The use of handcuffs are very effective as a restraining device and, if properly applied, they will afford maximum temporary security and reduce the possibility of the use of force or gunfire. They are very effective in transporting prisoners in one-man car operations and when handling dangerous prisoners. Officers should not place "full faith" in handcuffs, however, since they are not escape-proof. There is nothing that is escape-proof, not even maximum security penitentiaries. The handcuff does offer the maximum amount of "escape resistance" when they are properly used. It should be mandatory that every officer be equipped with handcuffs.

The "Iron Claw," another reliable restraining device, allows the officer to restrain more than one person as he has the free use of one hand. The officer can apply a twisting pressure with this device and immobilize a prisoner and "take the fight out of him," if the offender is physically resisting arrest and only necessary force is used.

The use of leg irons will secure the more dangerous and escape-prone type of criminal. The main advantage of this device is the limitation of leg movement. Sometimes a combination of leg irons and handcuffs are needed —again depending upon the criminal type.

Restraining straps and straight-jackets are also effective when handling the mental patient. The restraining of mental patients places officers in a difficult situation. Excessive use of force and the danger of the patient injuring himself is reduced when these devices are employed.

A nightstick or baton is one of the best defensive weapons an officer can possess. It has a high psychological value; many persons respect it. It prevents hostilities from prisoners, because many offenders will attack an officer without hesitation when the prisoner knows that the officer does not have a nightstick or baton. It is more effective than a firearm in crowded areas, disturbances and similar types of conflicts, where an officer is prevented from using his firearm by close contact.

The policeman's nightstick or baton is a "true friend" of an officer. Proper training will prevent unnecessary injury and eliminate "Head Hunters." A most disgraceful sight is to see a prisoner in a courtroom with his head draped with white bandages covering wounds caused by the improper use of the nightstick. The sympathetic treatment accorded criminals under such circumstances by a court or jury may result in a criminal eluding justice.

Black (or Slap) Jacks, if permissable in your state, should be carried by uniformed officers when the nightstick is unavailable and by all plainclothes officers that come in contact with the public. They have greater value to the plainclothes officer mainly because of the ease with which they may be concealed. They are not as effective as the nightstick or baton, but they have a proper place as a defensive weapon. Such equipment will not only prevent the officer from using his revolver, but will also protect him from broken fingers, or hands that may disable him temporarily, and sometimes permanently. Wounds occassioned by the teeth of an offender frequently result in disabling injuries.

Other available objects can be used depending upon the locality of the incident. Since necessity is the mother of invention we can improvise. It may be a chair, table, handful of dirt, etc., that an officer can use to protect himself when in difficulties. They may be as effective as his firearm and a preliminary defense against attack. It should be noted that even the regular equipment may not be available if the officer is effecting an "off-duty" arrest.

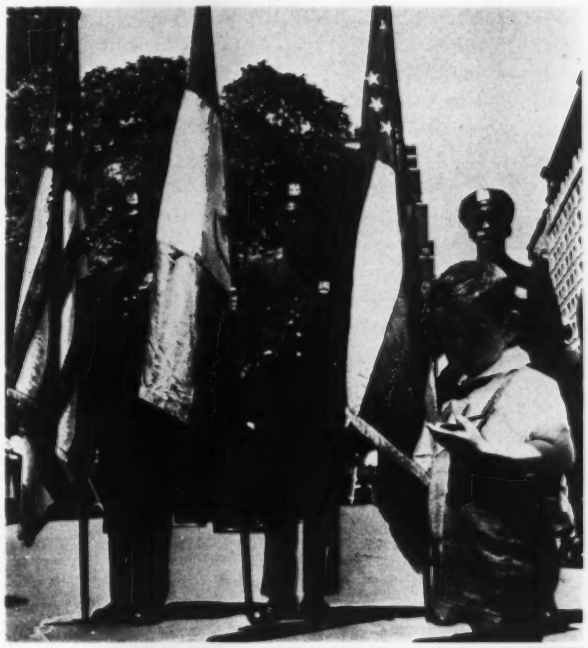
The use of physical restraint, the primary force, is exemplified when converted to the art of judo. Judo can be used with a minimum amount of effort and yet yield the maximum effect. Literature is abundant and available to begin a training program or improve the

Address: Sgt. Francis L. Martello, New Orleans Police Dept., New Orleans, Louisiana.

present one. The course, however, should not contain too many "holds"—this tends to confuse the officer as he cannot possibly remember all of them without constant retraining programs.

In regard to disarming methods—the Federal Bureau of Investigation has prepared and distributed to most police units, a most comprehensive and well-illustrated publication concerning this subject. This text should be a part of every police training program.

We should remember that the use of force has legal limitations and the law provides that an officer should use no more force than necessary. It is quite apparent however, that a professional police officer can arrest and transport a prisoner safely with a minimum amount of danger to *ALL* concerned if he will use the available restraining devices and techniques. ★★★



Mrs. Francine Talkowsky, accompanied by her 2-year-old son, received the Medal of Honor for Patrolman Michael Talkowsky of the New York City Police Department. Patrolman Talkowsky was fatally wounded in an exchange of shots with three robbers in a Manhattan apartment.
Photo at right shows young Michael wearing the Medal of Honor before the New York City Police Department color guard.

. . . . Riccochets . . . .

By Paul B. Weston

PEACE OFFICER STANDARDS AND TRAINING

Captain Gene Muehleisen, former C.O. of the highly-rated Police Academy of the San Diego, California, Police Department is now Executive Officer of California's new Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training. Gene's background has eminently qualified him for this type of work and the police of California are fortunate in having one of their own police training officers appointed to this important post.

One of Gene's first official acts was to conduct several surveys around the state in which police officers and officials were interviewed regarding the establishment of minimum standards for entrance-level police training.

In preliminary hearings the entire Commission heard testimony—it's composed of police and county government officials—and decided on a tentative program embracing a 160-hour minimum course of recruit instruction.

In reviewing this course it was discovered that only eight hours was allocated to range training, in police firearms. I blew my stack. I called Gene and arranged to file a formal exception to the new program. He not only invited me to submit a written exception to the allocation of only eight hours of shooting, but suggested I appear at the August 31st hearing of the Commission and testify in support of my exception.

At 10:00 A.M. on August 31st, the Commission assembled in the hearing room of the California State Assembly and in a meeting that was marked by true adherence to Democratic principles, the entire 160-hour program was reviewed. Truly, I have never attended a hearing in which the audience was more interested in the proceedings or the commission members as interested in hearing from members of the audience. The fact that a great many Chiefs of Police attended this hearing is also indicative of the great interest in training generally prevalent around the country.

I spoke on the tragic results of inadequate police training programs and the concept of municipal negligence that now makes it good business for any municipality or other government agency to provide an adequate training program. Chief F. L. Barnett, Chief of Police, Roseville, California, supported my position and spoke of the many instances within his own experience in other areas of the state, about finding police officers who were armed and sent out on patrol without proper training.

Address: Prof. Paul B. Weston, Law Enforcement Training Program, Sacramento State College, Sacramento, California.

Sheriff Michael N. Canlis, of San Joaquin County, added his voice in support of police firearms training generally and made a special plea for continuing or recurring training, saying, "Despite the number of hours of firearms instruction given in recruit training, it is useless if the officer is not kept at this level of training by regularly recurring training after graduation from recruit school, and at intervals sufficiently close to insure continued safe handling of his weapon and accuracy in its firing."

The formal petition field in this instance reads as follows:

August 24, 1960

Mr. Gene S. Muehleisen, Executive Officer
Commission of Peace Officer Standards and Training
104 Library and Courts Building
Sacramento 14, California

Dear Sir:

It is requested that the following exception be made a part of your hearing on August 31, 1960, in relation to the adoption of rules establishing minimum standards for training of police officers for agencies of government receiving state aid pursuant to Chapter I of Title 4 of Part 4 of the Penal Code, and Section 13510 of said Code.

This exception is to the allocation of only eight (8) hours to item No. 9, titled "Firearms (Range)," in the "Basic Course" outlined under "Minimum Standards for Training."

An active plea is hereby stated that firearms training be allocated a minimum of fifty-nine (59) hours during the Basic Course established as a Minimum Standard for Training in the State of California because a policeman and his revolver create an unusual problem for any community. A policeman is either trained to use his revolver with safety and accuracy and when legally and morally permissible; or he is incompetent, unable to defend himself and with a high potential for negligent acts. He is either given adequate training or he is inadequately trained. There is no middle ground!

In support of this plea is the fact that tragic deaths result from inadequately trained police armed with revolvers, and that a new concept of municipal negligence places the blame for such deaths directly upon the municipality or other governmental agency involved:

1. *Tragic Deaths*—Each year several children and numerous adults are injured by police gunfire in which the shot or shots were the result of accidental discharge of the firearm or the officer was acting without legal justification. Each year many policeman die heroes' deaths as the result of coming out second-best in armed encounters with criminals. In either case, adequate training would have saved close to 80 per cent of these tragedies. No one can excuse the tragic loss when a policeman is gunned down by an armed criminal; no one can excuse any tragic accident which is the foreseeable consequence of inadequate training.

2. *Municipal Negligence*—The failure of a police department to prepare a man to safely handle a loaded weapon is active wrong-doing for the purpose of determining negligence; and scanty safety lectures and poorly distributed practice, not up to national standards, are evidence that a negligent act by a policeman was a foreseeable consequence of such below-standard training. On March 11, 1960, in Essex County Court, New Jersey, Judge Donald G. Collester denied a motion for dismissal by attorneys for the City of Newark in the *Linda Peer* case and permitted the case to go to the jury. Linda Peer was a ten-year-old child accidentally wounded and crippled for life by a shot fired from a policeman's revolver. The jury awarded Miss Peer $225,000 in damages.

   Judge Collester, in making his decision, cited a ruling of the Appellate Division of the State of New Jersey, dated June 22, 1959, in the case of *McAndrew* vs. *Mularchuk*, saying, "The court held in the McAndrew case that where a municipality knowingly assigns a police officer, untrained in the use and handling of a firearm to duty, armed with a loaded weapon, and that officer injures another, due to negligence on his part in the use and handling of a weapon, then the municipality may be held for active wrongdoing, if the negligent act of the police officer was a foreseeable consequence of the municipality's default and the inadequacy of the police officer's training was proximately related to the injury sustained by the the plaintiff."

Case after case has been processed in our courts. The Peer case award was close to a quarter of a million dollars, and other cases have been the subject of even larger awards. Add to this dollar-and-cents fact the spectre that some day the widows and dependent children of policemen killed by criminals will sue the municipality, because the death of their husbands was directly traceable to inadequate training, and you have a potential of millions of dollars. Even today, a disability retirement or widow's pension will cost about $75,000 for each disabled or fatally wounded policeman.

I've been in police training myself for over ten years and I've battled budget problems and problems of time, but I submit that the great state of California should not say, "We can only afford to allocate eight hours to train a police officer in the use of his revolver; a weapon of injury and death."

I believe, and I point out, that a policeman with only eight hours of training in the use of his revolver is a menace to himself and the community he serves. Asking a man with this amount of training to fight armed criminals is murder, and permitting him to handle a loaded firearm in or about the community is potential murder.

Sincerely yours,
Paul B. Weston

WAX BULLETS

Colt's Patent Firearms Manufacturing Company are now selling a safe wax bullet cartridge. It is made with a red plastic case, thus removing the objections of many experienced firearms instructors to any practice with wax bullets at all, because of the danger of firing a lead, wad-cutter type of bullet in place of a wax one during wax bullet practice sessions. The possible disastrous consequences inherent in the similar appearance of wax and wad-cutter bullets has always "chilled" firearms people.

Mistakes are now out the window with these new cartridges. Anyone that mistakes a red plastic cartridge for a regulation one will have to apply for a medical survey.

COMBAT SHOOTING BOOK

Nothing like plugging your own book! My newest effort in this field and the result of close to four years of experimenting, teaching, and writing is now available from Charles C Thomas for $7.50. Titled, COMBAT SHOOTING FOR POLICE, it is a definitive text on practical pistol shooting for law enforcement personnel. ★★★

GUNS THAT MADE HISTORY

Late at night, a thief steals into a watermelon patch. As he runs, he trips a tiny wire. A revolving gun automatically rotates towards him and discharges buckshot into his backside.

That's how a "watermelon" gun works.

It's unlikely you've ever seen such a gun—it's rather rare. But hundreds do see it—every day—in the Winchester Gun Museum in New Haven, Connecticut.

This isn't all they see. The museum offers one of the most fascinating displays of firearms ever assembled with guns dating back to the Middle Ages.

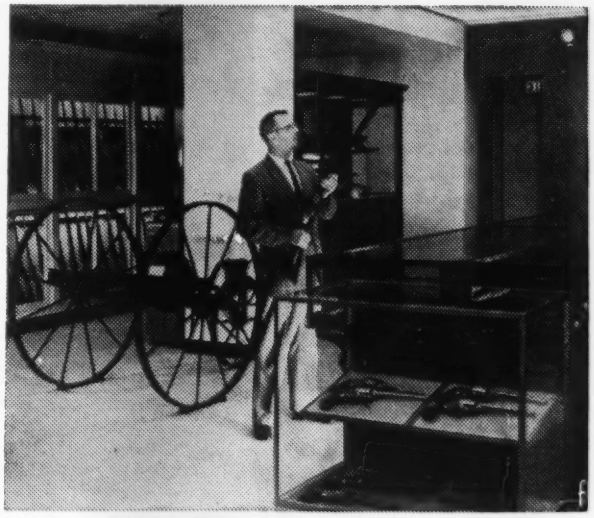
Actually, although firearms first appeared in Europe sometime in the 15th century, the collection goes back even further than that. It includes a bronze trigger mechanism for a crossbow made in China some 2,000 years ago. This was one of the very first hand projectile weapons, and it is considered one of the forerunners of today's firearms.

It's easy to trace the development of early firearms starting with the museum's oldest gun—a European repeating handgun with four barrels, made sometime around 1450. It's a rare exhibit and far more effective for its smoke and noise than for its firepower. But the majority of the collection is made up of American guns that figured prominently in the history of our country.

The museum now owns over 5,000 weapons worth over $500,000—one of the largest and most comprehensive collections in America. Between 800 and 1,000 of these firearms are displayed on the ground floor of the Winchester Research Building, a spacious, well-lighted museum.

Incidentally, Tom Hall, curator of the museum, estimates that at the present time most of the guns in the collection are in condition to be fired.

The gun oddities among the museum's exhibits are



many. Aside from the aforementioned "watermelon gun" here are some noteworthy examples:

A pair of flint duelers, part of the Pugsley collection.

A Sharp's Carbine with a coffee grinder built into the stock. Made during the Civil War for Union Troops.

A combination pistol, dagger, and iron knuckles—a popular defense weapon in Paris around 1900.

A combination pistol, knife and corkscrew. The corkscrew, as well as opening bottles, springs open the switch blade and acts as the trigger for the pistol.

A combination to end all combinations: a pistol, a knife, tweezers, fingernail file, cleaning blade, and toothpick.

These are but a few highlights of this unusual collection.

For gun enthusiasts, the Winchester Museum represents a living history of firearms. But even the tourist, realizing for the first time how much shooting man has done in his day, cannot help but agree, guns *do* make history. ★★★

The Hundred System

By Glen R. Murphy and Roy E. Hollady

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The line power of a police organization finds expression in two major types of field operations. The first is General Operations, and these are concerned with meeting the normal daily problems associated with crime, vice, traffic and miscellaneous activities commonly referred to in police circles as general duties. General Operations involve a fairly stable disposition of personnel resources and equipment in the line. With trained men, properly distributed, the police chief executive in the small community or in a large city, can address the striking power of the organization in an orderly and effective manner to the routine problems associated with the General Operations of the Department.*

However, even in the most efficiently organized and managed Police Departments, occasions constantly arise requiring special operational planning and execution. Special Operations are pointed toward the execution of temporary plans for the attack upon specific problems and emerging situations which arsie at particular or irregular intervals. They are concerned with the execution of short-term plans designed to cope with critical situations of a temporary nature in order to permit an overwhelming concentration of striking power at a particular time and place to meet a specific problem. These special situations require an orderly diversion of the striking power of the Department in sufficient amount to bring about liquidation of the problem.

In this important phase of police operations, there are lessons to be learned by every police force in the following article concerning the development and use of THE HUNDRED SYSTEM in the Metropolitan Police Department of St. Louis, Missouri. The System became officially operative at 4:00 P.M., on July 23, 1960. Initially employed only to combat armed robberies, it was successful in seven of the twenty-six times it was put into effect during the first month of operation. The Journal extends its appreciation to Colonel Curtis Brostron, Chief of the St. Louis Police Department, for his courtesy in permitting these materials to be made available to the field.

ABOUT THE AUTHORS: *Mr. Murphy is Director of the Office of Planning and Research in the St. Louis Police Department. He is a graduate of Michigan State University and in addition to his other responsibilities is a senior in Law School at St. Louis University. He was formerly Public Safety Officer with the Department of Public Safety at Oak Park, Michigan.*

Mr. Hollady is Training Director for the St. Louis Police Department. He graduated from Wayne State University and served with Department of Public Safety at Oak Park, Michigan, with the rank of Lieutenant. A former Instructor in the School of Police Administration and Public Safety at Michigan State University, he is now doing graduate work at that institution.

Address: Glen R. Murphy, Director, and Roy E. Hollady, Ass't. Director, Office of Planning and Research, Metropolitan Police Dept., 1200 Clark Ave., St. Louis 3, Missouri.

Note: Also see THE FLEXIBLE UNIT —A UNIQUE STRIKING FORCE, by George D. Eastman, Director of Public Safety, Pontiac, Michigan, in the July-August 1960 issue of POLICE.

The St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department adopted, on July 23, 1960, a new plan for apprehending criminals escaping from crime scenes. Three months of extensive research and experimentation had resulted in the creation of the "Hundred System."

The "Hundred System" is a method of rapidly surrounding and saturating a large area around the location of a major incident. If a victim immediately reports a crime, almost instantaneous descriptions and assignments are broadcast to patrol vehicles in the vicinity.

Certain vehicles are stationed at assigned posts in a perimeter about eighteen to twenty blocks away from the scene, while others cruise within the surrounded area. This efficient method of linked communications and patrol operations resulted in thirty-two "suspect" apprehensions out of a total of fifty-four "Hundred System" practice exercises.

This article attempts to highlight the stages of planning and experimenting which accompanied the evolution of these new techniques. The St. Louis experience may prove helpful to other departments in planning emergency field operations.

The development of the "Hundred System" was touched off by a memorandum from Chief of Police, Colonel Curtis Brostron, to the Office of Planning and Research on April 12, 1960. Chief Brostron requested a report on "the quadrant method of searching an area after a holdup or similar crime." The random procedures previously employed by the Metropolitan Police Department had functioned satisfactorily in many cases, but the number of holdups and subsequent escapes suggested that the Department should inject some order into its methods of combatting this type of crime.

The receipt of the Chief's communication set off one of the most widespread research and experimental projects on field operations that the Department has ever undertaken. To study the blockade and quadrant systems in use throughout the country, the Office of Planning and Research sent letters of inquiry to twenty-three major cities, and received nineteen replies. The returns indicated that blockade systems of one type or another were in use in eighteen of the nineteen answering

cities. These were on the whole similar in make-up and organization, and were referred to as either sector, grid, blockade, or quadrant systems; the specific name used did not, however, delineate the actual differences. Cincinnati appeared to have the most comprehensive of the eighteen plans.

Since the Metropolitan Police Department had never utilized a blockade or quadrant system before, and since no other system was readily adaptable, it was agreed that a plan should be developed on an experimental basis. Using the eighteen replies to our inquiries and the scant available published material on the subject, mainly limited to O. W. Wilson's *Police Administration* and V. A. Leonard's *Police Organization and Management*, the top command officers and the Office of Planning and Research drafted a tentative quadrant system to be used.

The next step was to set up an actual practice exercise in one of the twelve police districts of the City. The Twelfth District was chosen. A procedure was carefully developed to protect the participating officers as well as the citizens from any harm which might result from misunderstandings or misinformation. The participating officers and "suspects" were instructed to follow certain safeguards in cases of apprehension. The "suspects" would make no attempt to escape from arresting officers. Patrol officers or detectives making the apprehensions would handle the suspects as criminals. The use of red lights and sirens was prohibited.

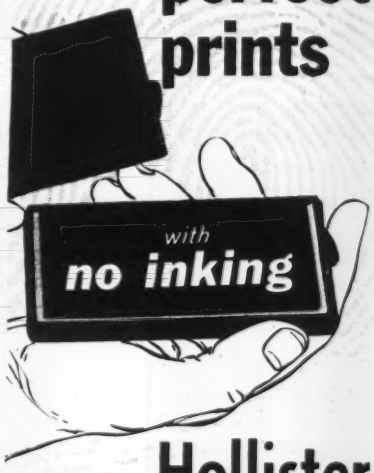
A circular was written embodying these safety procedures and describing the time, naming the district, and setting forth communication instructions for the first exercise. All District Commanders were instructed to read this circular at all roll calls for three consecutive days. In addition a complete copy of the procedure was distributed to every officer assigned to the Twelfth District. May 14, 1960, was chosen for the first exercise. The officers of the Twelfth District knew that a quadrant exercise was going to be held sometime that day. No one, with the exception of the responsible Area Commander, the Office of Planning and Research, the Assistant Chief of Police, and the Chief of Police knew the exact time. The exercise was planned to simulate an actual crime situation as closely as possible. At the scene of the simulated crime, the "victim" called in at 10:00 A.M. to the Communications Division using the regular citizen's complaint procedure to announce that a "crime" had been committed. As he was giving sketchy descriptions of the two "suspects," these "suspects," district detectives, left the scene in an unmarked car.

Upon receipt of the telephone call from the "victim," the complaint clerk obtained, and the dispatcher relayed, the available information to all patrol vehicles throughout the City. A particular crime was not announced. The dispatcher announced clearly, "Quadrant Exercise," gave the location of the simulated crime, and repeated, "Quadrant Exercise." The repetition was necessary to minimize any possibility of another patrol unit misunderstanding the call. The sketchy descriptions of the wanted "suspects" and vehicle involved were then broadcast.

After the descriptions were placed on the "air," the dispatcher assigned Twelfth District patrol vehicles to six positions on a perimeter approximately five blocks around the "crime" scene. Other vehicles were assigned to cruise within the surrounded area. Two cars were dispatched to the scene to take the initial report and to obtain any additional information which could be relayed to the other patrol units.

The exercise was as realistic as possible. The "victim" volunteered no information beyond answers to questions, asked by the complaint desk operator and the investigating officers. The plan called for the operation to be cancelled thirty minutes after it began, even if no apprehension was made. At 10:30 A.M., the "Quadrant Exercise" was cancelled. Neither "suspect" had been captured. Subsequently, it was learned that one patrol unit had observed the get-away vehicle approximately one quarter of a mile from the "crime"

takes perfect prints



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scene, while proceeding to his quadrant position. He had contacted the dispatcher and had given the "suspect's" location and direction of travel, but was unable to turn his vehicle around, and to pursue the "suspects." Even though the "suspects" were not apprehended, the results of the exercise proved encouraging.

The officers assigned to the scene of the "crime" had arrived quickly and had interviewed the "victim" in a capable manner. All patrol vehicles assigned to quadrant locations had arrived without unnecessary delay, even though red lights and sirens were not used. During the course of the exercise, the Watch Commander of the Twelfth District inspected the stationary positions to insure that all patrol vehicles were in position. The first exercise also generated a great deal of interest throughout the Department. The police officers directly participating in the exercise were particularly enthusiastic about the concept, although they voiced some reservations about the specific application.

Two days later, the top command officers and these writers met to evaluate the operations of the first exercise. They analyzed the report submitted by the Twelfth District commander and the criticism offered by the participating officers. The major miscalculation in the original procedure was found to be the distance the quadrant positions were placed from the scene of the incident. After examining the reports submitted by the "suspects" indicating the distances traveled at one, two, three, and four minute intervals, it was apparent that the original four to five block distance for stationing vehicles around the simulated crime scene was far too short.

The first change in the experimental procedure was to move the quadrant position perimeter back six to eight blocks from the scene. It was also decided to hold exercises during all three watches in each of the twelve police districts. Furthermore the designation "Quadrant System" was dropped and the term "Code Hundred System" was adopted to describe the experimental plan. The label, "quadrant," did not truly describe the operation which was being developed, since both moving patrols and fixed posts locations were being utilized. In addition, the "Code Hundred" designation lent itself to the numbered police districts in the City of St. Louis. Thus, if an exercise was held in the Ninth District, the dispatcher could announce, "Code Nine Hundred Exercise" give the location of the incident and repeat, "Code Nine Hundred Exercise."

The revised procedures were written and distributed to every police officer in the Department. An explanatory circular accompanied this document stating that henceforth no advance notice would be given as to the time, date, or location of future exercises. It was felt that complete distribution would contribute to better understanding of the system by the men, whose participation would determine the plan's eventual success.

During the first three exercises following the one on May 12th, the escaping "suspects" drove deliberately past fixed post locations to determine whether or not the officers would observe them. Strangely enough, they were apprehended only one out of the three times. This can be attributed to many things: lack of interest on the officer's part, poor observation techniques, and lack of information despite comprehensive distribution of the circular and copies of the plan. Following these three exercises, genuine attempts were made to escape from the "crime" scenes and from the participating officers.

After the first few exercises the apprehension rate increased rapidly. These writers and other civilian employees acted the part of the "suspect" in forty-five of the fifty-four escape attempts. For the most part, the civilians were not known by the participating officers. Privately owned vehicles (which were not radio equipped) were used to escape from the scene of the simulated crime. Different cars were used to avoid any undue familiarity. Various subterfuges were used to escape detection by officers at stationary locations and those patrolling designated areas.

Approximately half of the escapes were made in automobiles, the remainder made on foot. It was particularly difficult to escape on foot. In these particular exercises the fixed post vehicles were placed from six to eight blocks from the "crime." Other patrol and detective units were placed in the area for patrol purposes. The apprehensions in the "walk-a-way" exercises averaged about 75%. Officers at fixed posts served the purpose of boxing the criminal in the area, while the moving patrols affected the majority of apprehensions, within the fixed post perimeter.

The exercises employing "drive-a-ways" clearly indicated the need to place fixed posts locations at least eighteen to twenty blocks away from the scene. Even traveling at low rates of speed, a suspect escaping in a vehicle could get outside the fixed post perimeter within thirty to forty seconds after leaving the scene.

Every subterfuge was used to aid in the escapes, with the exception of entering private residences and buildings. For example, in an attempt to escape, one of the writers and an accomplice drove away from the scene of the simulated crime at a high rate of speed to a location one-half mile away, pulled to the curb and parked. It was a rainy Sunday morning and the windows of the car rapidly became fogged up. Within eight minutes a uniformed officer patrolling the area spotted the vehicle, investigated and made the "arrest." In another instance, two "suspects" escaped from the scene of the simulated crime in an automobile. One suspect was dropped approximately two blocks from the scene of the "crime" in the downtown area of St. Louis. Within seven minutes the "suspect" in the automobile had been apprehended five miles away by an alert patrol unit far outside the fixed perimeter. And four minutes after that apprehension, the "suspect" escaping on foot was captured in a crowd on a downtown street.

The heart of the development of the "Code Hundred System" was less in perfecting the field operational aspect than in evolving a rapid communication procedure. The success of this apprehension plan depended almost entirely upon the thoroughness and speed with which vital information was obtained from the "victim" and dispatched to the patrol units. Even seconds became valuable when suspects were making their escape. As mentioned above, the the complaint clerk and the assigned investigating officers had to extract all information from the "victims;" nothing was volunteered. Thus, if the complaint clerk failed to ask whether a vehicle was used in the escape, she was not told.

Gathering the description and details of escape was routine compared to the major obstacle—developing a rapid, flexible method of stationing vehicles at strategic points. Even after the perimeter distances were worked out, the problem of swiftly assigning the nearest cars to the correct locations remained. During the planning phases the Commander of the Communications Division perfected an instrument to speed and facilitate this dispatching process. They cut a piece of quarter inch clear plastic into an octagonal shape. The size of this octagon was scaled to a large, detailed map of the City of St. Louis, so that the diameter of the instrument would reach about forty blocks.

When a crime occurs, this instrument is placed on the map so that its center coincides with the location of the incident, and its outer points coincide with the established eighteen block perimeter. Vehicles can thereby be dispatched immediately to the major arteries or natural escape routes surrounding the "crime" scene. Points within the outer perimeter are used to assign other fixed and roving patrol units. The same type of instrument is used for foot escapes, with the octagon being scaled to a sixteen block diameter. The entire operation of plotting and dispatching the positions can thus be accomplished in a matter of seconds.

The Communications Supervisor, plotting the positions, continues until the area is surrounded or until the dispatchers report that no more vehicles are available. The plotting officer can readjust his positions as conditions change or new developments arise. All patrol units remain in radio contact, with the exception of those officers assigned to the scene of the simulated "crime." Units can be detached individually as needed, or en masse if warranted. On two occasions the operations were cancelled because major incidents demanding immediate attention from a number of police vehicles, occurred in the area.

Actually, more cars were available for the exercises than was at first anticipated. The original plan was developed around district patrol units with vehicles from other bureaus and divisions as a back-up force. When the dispatchers needed additional personnel and vehicles, because of shortage in the districts, they called units from the Bureau of Investigation the Bureau of Inspections and Personnel, the Traffic Division, and the Mobile Reserve Division, when cars from these bureaus and divisions made known their availability. Many apprehensions were affected by officers assigned to the bureaus and divisions other than the Bureau of Field Operations. Overall, an average of twelve vehicles was used per exercise. In two exercises as many as eighteen were employd, while in one as few as six were used.

As the exercises neared completion, the time span between the receipt of the call announcing the exercise and the completion of the broadcast describing the incident and "suspects" and assigning the vehicles, had been reduced to between sixty and ninety seconds. This rapidity of transmission and vehicle placement could not be sustained, of course, in all instances where real crimes occur, but there is an excellent chance that it will be maintained in most instances.

The smooth and efficient functioning of both the Communications Division and the Bureau of Field Oper-

City of Miami Drill Team

The City of Miami's crack motorcycle police drill team, recently named best in the United States after competition held by the American Legion, has been invited to participate in many outstanding events.

First on the agenda for the 21-man team commanded by Sgt. C. T. Renegar, will be the King Orange Jamboree Parade on New Year's Eve in Miami. The parade, biggest night-time parade in America, draws bands and drill teams from all parts of the U. S.

Next will be the inauguration ceremonies for Florida Governor-elect Farris Bryant in Tallahassee in January. There also is a strong possibility that the Miami team will participate in President-elect John Kennedy's Inauguration in Washington, D. C.

Later the team expects to defend its title during the next American Legion National Convention in Denver.

The precision team won the national title during the Legion's annual national convention in Greater Miami in October by beating out runnerup Indianapolis. This marks the third time that Miami won.

Photo courtesy of Miami-Metro News Bureau.

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ations did much to remove the skepticism with which any new plan inevitably meets. Increased rates of apprehensions convinced participating officers and their command officers alike. Diversion of vehicles did not lead to upsetting regular Departmental procedures and operations.

By July 6, 1960, the experimental phase was considered successful. Remaining exercises were planned for those watches in the districts that had not experienced one as yet. On July 23rd, the plan became regular Department procedure: exercises were henceforth abandoned to prevent confusion and accidents. The word "code" also was dropped to avoid confusion with the exercises. A completed "Hundred System" procedure was ready for use. A copy of the definitive procedure and other explanatory circulars were distributed to every officer in the Department. From now on increased efficiency would be gained not during practice exercises, but during actual "Hundred System" operations.

The extensive experimental phase served to eliminate the operational deficiencies as they arose. Proficiency increased as the exercises progressed. Continual study was made during these exercises, using the comprehensive reports on each exercise submitted by the commanders in each district. These reports included the listing of participating patrol units, their assigned post and/or assigned areas, routes taken to their assignments, and the time elapsing from the commencement of the exercise to their arrival at their assigned post. In addition, patrol and command officers submitted suggestions for improving the system.

Three months of practice exercises did far more than clear up some rough spots in the "Hundred System." It gave those responsible for its planning the opportunity to appraise the many positive contributions the system offered. The refinements achieved and the contributions noted during the development of the system were:

1. To eliminate an excessive number of patrol officers responding to the scene of the simulated crime: officers could not go to the scene unless they were assigned by the dispatcher.
2. To increase the interviewing and reporting abilities of participating officers.
3. To re-emphasize the importance of speed and accuracy.
4. To increase the alertness of officers on patrol throughout the City.
5. To stress the need for rigid supervision at the scene of incidents.
6. To utilize flexibility in the system. Adjustments could be made in the number and assignments of personnel at any time.
7. To emphasize that a crime committed in one district immediately becomes the responsibility not only of that district but of all districts.
8. To develop a technique with vast potential for crime prevention and suppression. The "Hundred System" is capable of being extended almost indefinitely in respect to patrol deployment and training methods. It can be used to combat crimes other than robbery, such as burglaries in progress, assaults, prowlers, and other offenses.

Improvements in the "Hundred System" procedures did not end with the termination of the practice exercises. At present, the Communications Division and the Office of Planning and Research are experimenting with a lighted glass-cover map device to increase plotting efficiency. The glass covers a positive black and white transparency of a large City map. As vehicles are dispatched in an actual "Hundred System" operation, stationary and roving patrol units would be indicated by brightly colored grease pencils on this map. After the operation has been cancelled, the grease mark could be wiped off the glass covering the map.

In the months ahead a rigid analysis will be made of the effect of the "Hundred System" in combatting crime in the City of St. Louis. Extensive records will be kept regarding the number of "Hundred System" operations each day, of units deployed, of participating vehicles from other bureaus, of apprehensions, comparative arrests made by moving and fixed patrols, and regarding the method and manner of attempted escapes when arrests are made.

The Metropolitan Police Department hopes that the implementation of the "Hundred System" will serve to reduce the number of Part I offenses occurring in St. Louis. After experiencing a 13% decrease in Part I crimes over the first three months of 1960, St. Louis has seen a renewed increase in the rate of crimes, including all classifications of robbery. A plan such as the "Hundred System" appears well designed to provide additional needed police service and protection for the citizens of St. Louis.

KNOW YOUR LAW

A Special Section of the Journal Devoted to Legal Questions of Direct Concern to Every Police Officer

Public or Private Prosecution?

By Francis C. Sullivan

One of the most important phases of any system of criminal procedure is the location of the right and the corresponding duty to commence a prosecution. As an aid to the understanding of our own system of prosecution it is well to observe the method employed by other nations, and for this purpose it is intended to look briefly here at the method in force in England, Scotland, South Africa and France—countries representative of quite different approaches to the solution of the many problems of the administration of criminal justice.

As a matter of basic policy, a nation could adopt any one of three possible methods of prosecution for crime: permit the person directly injured by the commission of the crime, or his relatives in the case of death, to prosecute the wrongdoer; designate a public official who will exercise the exclusive right to represent the state in the task of bringing the wrongdoer to justice; or designate a public official to represent the state in the prosecution of criminals, but also allow the victim of the crime, or his survivors, to join with the public official in the prosecution, or to conduct the prosecution alone in the event that the public official refuses to exercise his right to prosecute.

The choice of a particular method will be determined to a great extent by the philosophy of the particular nation with respect to the fundamental purpose of the criminal prosecution. If the particular country should focus upon the vindication of public rights through the prosecution and punishment of criminals, then it would be expected that a system of public prosecution would be established to implement this policy. On the other hand, if a nation believes that the right of the victim of crime is, if not the primary consideration, at least equal to that of the state as a whole, then it is reasonable to suppose that at least a share in the prosecution will be delegated to the individual. This, of course, is a generalization. There are many other factors which might lead to the establishment of a system of private prosecution as against a system of public prosecution. Among such factors would be the history of the development of the system of criminal procedure over the years, considerations of relative cost and efficiency, and a desire to combine, insofar as possible, the civil and criminal remedies flowing from one incident into one proceeding.

In early times all criminal prosecutions were commenced by private individuals. This historical fact may be attributed to the lack of a governmental organization qualified to perform the task, but we cannot ignore the possibility that the feeling existed among the people that the victim of crime was the proper person to invoke the power of the state to punish the wrongdoer, so long as the victim of the crime was not the state itself.

In England today, private prosecution, as distinguished from an integrated system of public prosecution is the rule. Although the office of the Director of Public Prosecutions does exist, this office will commence a prosecution only in those rare cases where the offense is one of great public importance or is a matter of particular concern to the government itself. Except for these relatively rare situations, all prosecutions are commenced and carried through to conclusion through the efforts of law enforcement agencies or private individuals.

In actual practice, most prosecutions are commenced by the police. If the offense be a summary one, the appropriate police inspector will prosecute the accused before the local Magistrates' Court. If the offense is a more serious one—one which will require an indictment—the police will retain a solicitor to commence the prosecution, and a barrister in private practice will be retained to conduct the actual trial for the prosecution. A private individual who considers that he has been wronged by the criminal action of another may also commence a prosecution through private counsel of his own choice and at his own expense.

This system has one very desirable advantage over most systems of public prosecution. The quality of the prosecution is very high in England due to the fact that highly qualified barristers bring to the trial of criminal cases the accumulated knowledge and experience of many years of practice. For the most part, public prosecutors, at least

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at the lower levels, are engaged in the process of gaining trial experience, and the office is often considered to be but a stepping stone to other public office, or perhaps to a lucrative private practice. This is true in certain areas of the United States where most prosecutions are conducted by political appointees with little trial experience either civil or criminal. It would seem that the result of the English system is to provide a better brand of criminal justice in the trial courts than is available in many countries possessing a completely integrated system of public prosecution.

Scotland, on the other hand, has established an extensive system of public prosecution. The Lord Advocate, appointed by the Crown, is entrusted with almost complete power to initiate and control criminal prosecutions throughout Scotland. Operating through assistants, known as Advocates Depute in the higher courts, and representatives, known as Procurators Fiscal in the lower courts, the Lord Advocate has complete discretion to prosecute or to refuse to prosecute in a given case. Only in the very minor type of offense, such as poaching, is a private person authorized to commence a prosecution, and even then it may be necessary, depending upon the particular statute involved, to first obtain the consent of the Lord Advocate.

The Scottish system has proved to be highly effective at all levels. The system makes use of the experience of the private practitioner by appointing such persons as Advocates Depute on a part-time basis, and at the same time continuity of operation is maintained in the professional body of Procurators Fiscal having civil service status. The Scottish system of public prosecution provides an independent and disinterested presentation of the case against an accused by competent, professionally trained persons, and, by avoiding the sometimes partisan nature of private prosecution, it assures a high degree of protection for the accused without the necessity of injecting a judicial officer into the proceedings at an early moment.

South Africa also provides a complete system of public prosecution. Control over the system of public prosecution is vested in the Attorney-General, but the Public Prosecutors appointed to serve throughout the country possess a high degree of discretion in making the initial decision to prosecute or not. Protection against abuse of this discretion is provided by empowering the victim of the particular crime to petition the Attorney-General for a reversal of the decision of the Public Prosecutor. If this fails, the victim may then, but only then, choose to commence a prosecution through an advocate of his choice. To assure the judicious exercise of this limited power of private prosecution, South Africa has provided that such a private person shall be compelled to pay the accused person's expenses of defense should the prosecution prove to be unsuccessful. This sanction has in practice proved to be a deterrent to private prosecutions, and properly so, for if competent and impartial public officials at two levels determine that the facts of a case do not warrant prosecution, it is rare indeed that a private prosecution will be successful.

This system also makes wide use of the talents of the practitioner in private practice. It is the normal practice for the Attorney-General to designate an advocate in private practice to conduct prosecutions before the Supreme Court sitting on circuit, and the high standard of prosecution is thus maintained at all levels.

The systems of public and private prosecution exist side-by-side in France. The government provides a public prosecutor for each of the French courts. At the lowest level, the public prosecutor is the *procureur de la République*, a person who is not only a public official operating under the direction of the Minister of Justice, but also is an irremovable magistrate and hence a member of the judicial organization. The career of a judicial officer will normally embrace service as prosecutor, judge, and official of the Ministry of Justice in no particular order. The *procureur* has almost unlimited discretion to prosecute in a given case, subject only to the directions of the Minister of Justice.

The system of private prosecution actually arises by a process of indirection. The victim of an offense in France, or his survivors, if death results, may bring a civil action for damages for the injury suffered either in a civil court or in a criminal court. If the victim chooses to file a civil party complaint in a criminal court against the accused, this has the effect of immediately commencing a criminal prosecution. This results because once the particular court obtains jurisdiction through the commencement of the civil action it may impose any of the available criminal sanctions upon the defendant. It is also possible for the victim to join his civil action with a criminal prosecution commenced by the *procureur*.

As has South Africa, France has seen fit to control private prosecutions. The French sanctions against the unsuccessful private party are more harsh than those in South Africa, however, since the unsuccessful "civil party" is subjected to both civil and criminal liability for defamatory information, in addition to liability for the cost of the criminal prosecution.

It can be seen that each of the nations considered is aware of the dangers of unlimited private prosecution, and that appropriate steps have been taken to prevent abuses. There is at the same time, with the exception of Scotland, a feeling that the victim of a crime should be given a means of protection against an arbitrary refusal to prosecute on the part of the public official concerned. This is in rather marked contrast to the United States where only the prosecutor may commence a criminal prosecution, and where his decision to prosecute or not is subject only to those indirect pressures which may be created by public opinion and the elective process.

It can be said that the various systems of prosecution operate very well under the particular local conditions, and that there is very little difference in actual results as between the different systems.

The Problems of Being a Police Officer

By Richard H. Blum

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This is the second in a series of two articles dealing with the personal problems that beset a police officer. The first article apeared in the preceding issue of POLICE.*

CONFLICT OVER DECISIONS

Another characteristic of the policeman's job is the fact that he must make immediate on-the-spot decisions. He must make up his mind "right now" without the luxury of thinking for too long, looking up information in a book, or asking a superior which course of action is best. The policeman is under real pressure; pressures which he can't avoid. The conflict occurs when some situation requires a decision which isn't easy; naturally, he would prefer not to have to commit himself to an action which may prove wrong. The wrong decision can lead to annoyances like being reprimanded by the sergeant, or it can lead to unnecessary injury or death.

Take for example, the case of the policeman pursuing an armed robber on foot in a pedestrian-crowded downtown street. The felon fires on the officer but should the officer return the fire? If he does he may endanger the lives of the fast-dispersing citizens; if he does not he may fail to make the capture, or he may himself get shot. Assume the officer decides to return the fire; assume the felon is captured but some bystander is also wounded. The town newspapers will no doubt bring pressure on the so-called "wild West" tactics of the police force.

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Usually, the officer has no really excellent alternatives; most of the on-the-spot decisions he must make are like the example; a choice of evils. No wonder the policeman is in conflict from the pressure to choose one evil through a quick decision, versus his real desire to get himself off the hook by passing the buck or evading the issue.

Because the officer is always on the hot spot with having to make choice-of-evil decisions he may also develop some envious intolerance of people who don't have to stick their necks out. As a man of action the policeman can be understandably annoyed with other people who appear not to have to act or to decide in crises. The policeman for example can become rather impatient with the psychiatrist who "doesn't have to do anything but sit in his office and listen to people gripe," which is the way one policeman characterized the psychiatrist's work to me. This understandable impatience and intolerance of the luckier ones who don't work under such pressure can actually lead to troubles between the police profession and others with whom they must work, as for example psychiatrists, lawyers, judges and the like.

The best solution for the problem posed by the need for on-the-spot decisions is to improve police training. The job can't be changed, but the more knowledge and experience the officer can bring to the "hot spot," the better he will be able to make the right decision. Thorough training can make the policeman rightly confident of his ability to make the correct decision.

CONFLICTS IN BELIEF

Authority versus rebellion. There are certain conflicts in ideas and beliefs which are common to policemen. While these are not likely to interfere with efficiency of job performance, nor lead to real emotional upset, they are conflicts that may lead to dissatisfaction with one's job as a police officer. They may lead to irritation, confusion, or uncertainty about the profession one has chosen.

One of these problems is a conflict of admiration of the rebel versus obedience to authority. More than any other group, the police represent authority in our society. By such "authority," I mean constituted power, the right to command. To the average citizen, police are the visual signs of authority. At the same time there is, in America, a strong admiration for the rebel, the fellow who can "get away with it." There is envy of the man who can break the law, or who can laugh at authority. Because the admiration for the successful rebel is so much part of our lore, it is impossible for many people not to share it, including the policeman. As an example, the admiration for the daring initial success of the Boston Brinks robbers, which you all know is shared by many. There is envy of the way that Errol Flynn could get away with having such an underage girl friend. In the Jesse James era, you all are aware of the way in which Jesse was admired as a hero.

The consequence of this conflict between respect for authority and admiration of the rebel, is the fact that some police personnel may wonder if

they are really on the right side. The officer may not be so sure that his job of being the "authority" is the right one after all. Some officers may believe that the rebel is correct. The policeman may also wonder if he wants to be the one against whom people are rebelling, for it is not pleasant to be the target of rebellion.

Conflicts in belief—How should a policeman act? At the present time, the policeman is exposed to several different philosophies about what his job is, and how he should conduct himself. It is a part of the large conflict that our society has about the policeman's approach to, and the handling of the criminal offender. What, exactly, does law-enforcement seek? Protection of the citizen, revenge on the evil-doer, prevention of crime through deterrant example, rehabilitation of the criminal? It probably seeks each, but the trouble is that these goals may be in conflict with one another. If so, the peace officer is in the middle.

The fact that rehabilitation cannot be practiced at the same time as arrest and conviction may be seen in the separation of probation from police work. A conflict can occur between peace officers and probation officers about how offenders should be treated. This can be a serious problem for both sides, one which can affect their morale and well-being. As an example, a police officer may spend considerable time and effort investigating a case, making an arrest, and preparing his reports for inclusion as evidence. His efforts to apprehend the criminal will inevitably be hard work, they may also involve physical danger to himself. Then, the court will put the offender on probation, so that the offender "beats the officer home," as the saying goes. Of course the officer cannot help but feel discouraged and frustrated; it is as though he has been hired to do the wrong duty, one that society did not actually intend for him to do. All of his efforts seemed to have been in vain.

On the other hand, the probation officer also suffers from the conflict in philosophy. He may be working very hard on the rehabilitation of an offender, a project that seems to be coming along well, when suddenly, his probationer is arrested on suspicion, and subjected to some very unfriendly interrogation. In spite of his release upon being cleared, the probationer is so discouraged by being thought of by police as "once a bum, always a bum", that he obliges them by resuming his criminal activities. The probation officer then can only blame the rehabilitation failure on the arresting policemen and their attitudes.

These problems of differing attitudes about the approach to, and the handling of offenders, are indeed serious ones for all law enforcement personnel. For example how can an officer be "understanding" with juveniles who take advantage of liberal laws, commit crimes with apparent impunity, insult the arresting officer, perhaps even hit him, and then laughingly say, "You can't touch me, I'm a juvenile." The policeman may feel obliged to be permissive with juveniles once he has received training in some ivory tower psychology course; but how can he be permissive when perhaps two seventeen year olds are shooting guns at citizens?

In point of fact, modern sociology and psychology have served in many ways to make life harder for peace officers by confusing them about their jobs and actions. Emphasis on "understanding" the criminal has been interpreted by some people as meaning that there should be no punishment for offenders, only "treatment." This is believed in spite of the fact that there are very few "treatments" known to "cure" the ordinary (not mentally ill) criminal. Some people have gone so far as to take the scientific notion of determinism, that is the idea that all events are caused by preceding events and present conditions, to mean that there is no free will. If this is so, then no one can be held responsible for what they do. Our entire framework of individual responsibility under the law would be out of date. Where does that leave the policeman? Confused at best.

As long as mental health notions are applied to the really sick people, either the crazy ones or the obviously neurotic ones, then the policeman can get useful information, as for example on how to recognize the mentally ill, or on handling depressed or violently ill people. On the other hand, when unclear psychological notions are applied to ordinary criminals to suggest that punishment is wrong, or that treatment of the individual is more important than protection of the community, then you have a conflict of ideas that makes law enforcement officers understandably uncertain about just what they should be doing.

For example, in Palo Alto recently, there was debate over the high speed pursuit of two juveniles who shot at the pursuing officer, and then crashed, killing an innocent driver. Review of the letter-to-the-editor column, shows a substantial number of citizens criticizing the officer for doing what his job required, i.e. pursuing a fleeing felon, and returning fire when fired upon. Some citizens write that the juveniles involved were nice kids not given a fair chance, or that the officer should not have pursued them for it would have been better to let them go. These are strong public pressures, that can only upset the policeman who did his duty. He receives criticism instead of thanks; he becomes confused by conflicting demands instead of being reassured by community agreement on what his job is.

The problems lead to the consideration of a closely related difficulty, the fact that the policeman is uncertain about how he should act. Some uncertainty is not based on any inner conflict of beliefs or motives within the officer himself, rather, it comes from society either not knowing what it wants from the police, or from various citizens acting inconsistently

toward the police. The result is the policeman's uncertainty which leads towards his being discouraged, disgusted, and sometimes inefficient.

POLICE OFFICER PROBLEMS LEADING TO UNCERTAINTY

Community change—A community may change in its population, leaving the police with few guideposts on how to act with the new element. For example, a Negro minority group moves into a northern city, bringing with them their own customs and traditions, some of which are in conflict with the local law. Child neglect, fighting, knifings, living out of wedlock, narcotics, may all be a part of an accepted way of life for them, but not for the staid community into which they move. Just how should the policeman act? Should he enforce middle class laws on people who come from a different kind of society? If so, he tackles an almost impossible task. However, if he does not enforce those laws, then he is guilty of differential treatment, or setting up a double standard. Either way, some people in town will be displeased with the police service. While the policeman suffers from the public criticism resulting from population change, he can do nothing about it, as the problem lies in the fact that the community itself has not adjusted to its new element.

POLICE DEPARTMENT CHANGES

Another thing that leads to uncertainty and to personal distress, is the fact that police departments themselves change rather rapidly these days, both because they expand with fast growing populations, and because standards for police work are changing as fast as technical knowledge and social philosophies change. One thing that may occur is that men with seniority on the force may be passed by in promotions, in favor of the younger men with more technical training. The experienced older men can't help but be bitter, as they see less experienced youngsters get ahead of them. The older men feel betrayed, left out, discriminated against; all of this when they have worked hard and well for many years. Cliques develop within the department, and political battles take more energy than law enforcement, while the old fight the new. Morale goes to pot for all concerned.

Contacts with children offer many opportunities for favorable public relations. Photo courtesy Gourley, G. D., Public Relations and the Police.

The new men have their troubles, also; they feel frustrated when tradition or old-fashioned administrators prevent them from doing the good job they think they can do. Their skills are not applied as best they could, so they too, become depressed and discouraged, wondering if police work was meant for them after all. The departments themselves, under so much pressure, have not had the time to coordinate experience with the new knowledge to make their changes in an efficient fashion. Again social changes have made life hard for the policeman.

PUBLIC ACCEPTANCE

Perhaps the most serious of all problems that plague the policeman is public acceptance. Here is the root of much of his uncertainty and job-caused conflict.

The public has not yet made up its mind that it really wants a policeman. As long as that is the case, the policeman has troubles. Part of the public's uncertainty is because of this American rebellion against authority, which I have noted. The public knows it *needs* policemen, but actually wanting them is another matter. Another part of the uncertainty is the fact that we haven't just one public, but we have dozens of different publics, each with its own set of standards, beliefs, and customs. For example, the Chinese, the Mexicans, the Southern Negro recently come north, the upper class set, the middle class, the working class, and etc. Because there are so many different kinds of people in America, no one can seem to reach agreement of which laws to enforce, or how to enforce them.

Another reason for the public's failure to accept the police, is that in many ways we have a criminal society. Too many people want the laws to apply to the other fellow, while they are free to do what they want, whether it is being a litterbug, placing bets with a bookie, driving at 90 miles an hour, or cheating on their income tax. All of these are fairly minor offenses, as offenses go, but, too many good citizens like their bad habits enough to resent the inhibiting presence of

Efficient recovery of property and its return to rightful owners create confidence in the police on the part of the public.
Photo courtesy of Gourley, G. D.

the police. An example, you all know of John Q. Public, who needs a policeman badly enough when his store is robbed, or when there is a prowler about. Then he can't see an officer fast enough. When the officer comes, he is hero for the hour. However, on the next evening, when John Q. is drunk drivnig, then the arresting officer is Mr. Poison himself. What a shift from hero one minute, to brutal tyrant the next—no wonder the average policeman feels betrayed by the public who hires him. The officer can't help but be uncertain about himself, not sure if he is a public enemy, or a knight in shining armour. What the policeman needs is continuous support and respect from the public, not the continual shift from love to hate, and back again.

Part of the public acceptance problem is in the fact that the public really hasn't made up its mind about what crime is, even if there are black and white laws on the books. As long as its mind isn't made up, the public will treat its police force shabbily, giving them support one time, and a lot of resistance the next. Lynching, for example, is a crime, but the small Southern town does not accept it as such. Drunk driving is a crime, but haven't you all read newspaper articles which raise a clamor when drunk drivers lose their driver's licenses after arrest and conviction. Oral intercourse is a crime, but Kinsey tells us three out of four married couples are guilty of it; and Lord save an arresting officer who brings that charge on a prominent citizen. In Indiana, masturbation is a crime, but who can, or would, enforce that one? You see, the list is long, but the conclusion is short. The public has not yet decided what is crime and what isn't. The policeman is neither judge nor jury, but the public expect him to be both by giving him laws which cannot be enforced, or laws which should be enforced, but which he is supposed to be discreet enough to ignore. Is it no wonder that police officers become confused and depressed on the job. Their job is not clearly defined, nor can they expect to be supported when they do their job as they see it.

THE IRRITATING PRESS

One of the irritating things that contribute to the lack of public acceptance is the enjoyment that newspapers seem to take in publicizing any misbehavior on the part of police officers themselves. Because the policeman is supposed to prevent crime and not to commit it, this journalistic enthusiasm over police misconduct may be understandable, but it is certainly no help in shaping public respect. Police departments seem to be one of the favorite targets of the press. Small things are made large, any little slip gets memorialized on the front page, and given a big scandal, the papers will spend weeks in an ecstasy of editorials. Police misconduct is news, there's no getting away from it. But the effect of its being news is to constantly remind the public that their law-enforcing heroes too often have feet of clay.

The solution for this newspaper irritant is three-fold; (1) better selection of police officers so that potentially unstable or dishonest officers are not put on the force; 2) efficient and non-political administration of police departments so that corruption is not allowed, and so that police department administration and appointments do not become a political football.

By taking local politics out of police appointments and management one would take away the incentive for the opposition press to use a police department as an example of the corruption or poor administration of the party in power. As an aside it is likely that removing police from politics would provide more stable and efficient police departments per se.

(3) The third part of the solution of the journalistic irritant is to develop better police department relations with the local papers. Instead of playing hide-and-seek with police reporters as some officials do, it is preferable to make the reporters feel they are getting a fair shake from the police, that they are not being denied properly public information, and that the reporter's ethical committment not to print information given in confidence can indeed be trusted. Given better public relations with reporters

and editors, one can count on a much more favorable newspaper treatment of police affairs.

If there were any easy solution to the job-caused problems that policemen suffer, of course it would have been accomplished long ago. The sad fact is, that the police, because they are one of the most important professions in our country, bear the burden of some of our most serious troubles. They are stuck with the public's own confusion about what it believes in, what it wants, and how it should behave. Instead of consistent respect which they deserve, too often the police are targets for the lunatic fringe, scapegoats for the hustling politician, of testing ground for new and unproven ideas on how to handle people. While these are general problems for most police organizations, they are also individual problems for each policeman.

For partial solutions to some of these problems, I would ask you to think about the following:

1. Endeavor to increase the professional standard of police work by setting forth high standards of training and performance which will justify the policeman's right to speak as an expert in the public forum, and which will justify his natural desire for respect as a professional person.
2. Emphasizing for all police the importance of a genuine ethical code will will give every officer something to aim for in his own actions, and which will enable all officers to be pulling toward the same goals in their life work. The ethical code, for example the one supported by the California Peace Officer's Association, should clearly put loyalty to principle ahead of loyalty to any small group. This, of course, is a harsh and painful rule, but only through it can one achieve the solution of some of the most terrible conflicts which the average police officer faces.
3. It may be necessary to put pressure on our public and political leaders so that they will publically announce just what they expect their police to do, as well as what they would be expected not to do. Only through public policy can the police get clear direction so they can perform their jobs without conflict and confusion.
4. Each individual officer should realize that he has one of the most difficult jobs that any man can hold. The officer should try to face himself honestly, admitting his fears, frustrations, and weaknesses as well as his strengths. It may be too much to expect happiness in such a difficult job, and certainly perfection is impossible. Even so, with an honest look at oneself, and one's difficulties, police work can be a source of genuine pride and personal achievement. ★★★

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Planning & Research Bureau

MAJOR PROJECTS

Current, Completed and Abandoned

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This is the fifth in a series of seven reports covering planning and research projects completed or in progress in a number of American Police Departments. The first report appeared in the July-August issue of POLICE.*

I. ANNEXATION

a. Estimated cost for policing areas scheduled for annexation for 1957, 1958, 1959 (1953).
b. Estimated costs (revised) for policing 1957 eastern annexation area (1955).
c. Eastern annexation survey—physical and costs (1956).
d. Southern annexation survey—physical and costs (1957).
e. Northern annexation survey—physical and costs (1958).

II. ONE-MAN CAR

a. One-man car training procedures (1953).
b. One-man car operational report (1954).
c. One-man car operational report—comparing 1954 to 1952 (1955).
d. Radio calls—calls requiring the service of two or more cars (1955).

III. BEAT AREAS

a. Hold-up road block system (1954).
b. Beat area revisions (1954).
c. Workloads by beat areas (1954).

The Journal serves as a central clearing house for information concerning planning and research in the American police field. Other Departments are invited to send in to the Editor reports covering planning and research projects which they have completed or have in progress.

d. Beat area spot maps—denoting part I offenses against property daily by beat areas (1955-1956-1957).
e. Beat area revisions (1955).
f. Beat area revisions (1956).
g. Beat Manual (1956—*dormant*).
h. Beat area workload index (1958—*in use*).
i. Beat area revisions (1958).

IV. MAJOR SURVEYS CONDUCTED—INTER-DEPARTMENT

a. General Administrative Survey—police departments in cities with a 1950 census of 300,000 to 1,000,000 (1952, 1953, 1954, 1955, 1956, 1957, 1958).
b. General Administrative Survey—police departments in cities with a 1950 census of 150,000 to 300,000 (1956, 1957, 1958).
c. Fire and police working conditions (1953).
d. Police physicians, use of (1954).
e. Traffic survey for Kansas City Safety Council (1954).
f. Comparing stolen and recovered property (1954).
g. School patrols (1955).
h. Police benevolent associations (1956).
i. Tow-in of abandoned, stolen, wrecked, illegally parked vehicles—types of contracts (1957).
j. Pensions, specifically vested interest clauses (1957).
k. "Meter Maids"—use of women for parking meter enforcement (1958).

V. MAJOR SURVEYS CONDUCTED—INTRA-DEPARTMENT

a. Rental increase due to expiration of rent controls (1953).
b. Asian Flu shot reactions (1957).
c. Police education—children of officers of high school age or older having attended or desiring to attend college and officers own education (1958).

VI. INTERNAL STUDIES AND PROJECTS

a. Job classifications and descriptions (1953).
b. Performance rating system (1953).
c. Retirement law revision (1953).
d. Proposed police science curriculum at Kansas City University (*continuously since 1954*).
e. Monthly workload accumulation, all units and bureaus (1954, 1955, 1956, 1957, 1958).
f. Procedures and Rules Manuals (*continuously since 1954*).
g. IBM Workload Study (1954).
h. Police problems from major league baseball—move of the Philadelphia Athletics to Kansas City (1954).
i. Annual Report data and preparation (1954, 1955, 1956, 1957, 1958).
j. Modus operandi study (*1955, continuing to date*).
k. Five year future needs projected (1955).
l. IBM expansion study (1955).
m. Cost of living, increase in (1955, 1957).
n. Mental prisoners, treatment and handling of (1956, 1957—*dormant*).
o. Payroll accounting machine study (1956).
p. Veri Type machine study (1956).
q. Forms control and analysis (1956).
r. Cast aluminum blowout closets for jail use (1956—*abandoned after trial*).
s. Butane fuel for police vehicles (1956—*dormant*).
t. Dogs in police work (1956—*continuing to date*).
u. Central complaint system (1956).
v. Police garage—audit of methods (1956).
w. Police law amendment, background work (1957, 1958).
x. Civilian advisory board as advisor to police Planning & Research Bureau (1957—*dormant*).
y. Preparation of printed material—state laws relating to the Kansas City and St. Louis Police Departments and new juvenile code (1957, 1958).
z. Stenographer pool—use of (1957—*dormant*).
aa. Preparation of a 67 page speaker's manual (1957).
bb. Helicoptors, use of in police work (1957—*dormant*).
cc. Addition of a second police radio frequency (1957—*still being worked on*).
dd. Motorcycle accident costs—5 years (1957).
ee. Tornado policing costs—1957 Hickman Mills—Ruskin Heights tornado south of Kansas City (1957).
ff. Forms and procedures revision—Juvenile Bureau (1958).
gg. Division procedures—identification of casualties and procedure of policing (1958—*still being worked on*).
hh. Police needs (1958).
ii. Space shortage at police garage (1958—*still being worked on*).
jj. Projectile syringe, use of on animals—tranquilizer (1958—*dormant*).
kk. Cost comparisons on the use of six and eight cylinder cars (1958).

Murder Weapon

Sombrero hat found at crime scene

Do You Recognize These?

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The Journal does not usually publish information concerning wanted persons. In this instance, however, it is a pleasure to cooperate with the New York State Police.*

On the evening of July 29, 1960, one Carole Elaine Segretta, a pretty young female, age 22 years, a school teacher, was found shot to death at a parking area on Route 129, a connecting highway to the Taconic State Parkway in the town of Yorktown, Westchester County, New York. The homicide occurred about 4:55 P. M. and it is believed that Miss Segretta met her death in or near her parked motor vehicle.

Below is an artist's conception of a white male wanted by the New York State Police, drawn from a composite description by witness.

Four bullets were fired into her body at close range. One projectile entered the left forehead, travelled laterally to the left and exited 1¼" from the entrance wound. Another projectile was fired into the right ear, penetrating downward into the rear of the cranial cavity. Two projectiles were fired into the upper spinal region of the back about 2½" apart.

An eye-witness to the crime described the perpetrator as a WHITE, MALE, AGE 20 to 25 YRS., 6 FEET TALL, 140 to 150 LBS., STUDENT TYPE INDIVIDUAL, BLACK FRAMED EYE GLASSES, WEARING DARK CLOTHING AND A WESTERN TYPE SOMBRERO (COWBOY) HAT, COLOR LIGHT TAN, SIZE 7¼, WITH THE TRADE NAME "WINGS—NATIONALLY ADVERTISED" ON THE SWEAT BAND. (THIS HAT WAS FOUND IN THE VICINITY OF THE CRIME SCENE). SUBJECT MAY HAVE LEFT THE SCENE OF THE CRIME IN A DARK BLUE 1956 PLYMOUTH AUTOMOBILE.

The gun used in the crime was recovered in a wooded area about a mile from the crime scene and has been identified as the weapon used. It is an IVER-JOHNSON, revolver, .32 cal., serial A-26037, 5 shot cylinder chamber, hinge frame, nickel plated finish with hard rubber grips which were wrapped with black plastic electrical tape, overall length 6½", barrel length 3", weight 13 oz., rifling 5 lands and grooves with a right hand twist, tested trigger pull single action 9 lbs., double action 15 lbs., and was manufactured over 25 years ago. The casings of the fatal projectiles are described as follows:

.32 S&W, brass shell casings, head stamped "REM-UMC" .32 S&W indicating manufacture by the Remington Arms Company of Bridgeport, Conn.

If you have any information on the subject or can identify him from the photograph or if the hat or weapon are recognized please notify:

Inspector John C. Dwyer, New York State Police, District "K", Hawthorne, New York. ★★★

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POLYGRAPH and INTERROGATION

The Army Trains Polygraph Examiners

LIE DETECTOR OPERATOR TRAINING AT THE UNITED STATES ARMY PROVOST MARSHAL GENERAL'S SCHOOL, FORT GORDON, GEORGIA

By CWO-3 Edward A. Spohn

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The Provost Marshal General's School at Fort Gordon, Georgia, has attracted world-wide attention and the Journal is pleased to present this story concerning its program for the preparation of polygraph examiners, an outstanding training operation. The author attended Los Angeles City College and entered the army on a career basis in March of 1941. He is a graduate of the Military Police Criminal Investigator's Course, Carlisle Barracks, Pennsylvania; The European Command Intelligence School, Oberammergau, Germany; the Special Criminal Investigator's Course at the University of Vienna in Vienna, Austria; and the Lie Detector Operator's Course at The Provost Marshal General's School at Fort Gordon. Formerly a Military Police ROTC Instructor at the University of Texas in Austin, he is now an Instructor in the Lie Detector Operator's Course in The Provost Marshal General's School.*

A Large share of the pioneering in the field of lie detection can be attributed to members of the Academy. But we must think of the future. We must think of those who are currently entering the field of lie detection — those individuals who will "carry the ball," so to speak, after us. Will they have the ability, interest, and character to continue to progress or will they be content to leave things as they are to become stagnant? Of course the initial training that they receive in lie detection will determine to a large extent their future interest and value to the field. For this reason, the training of new lie detector operators is of vital interest to all of us.

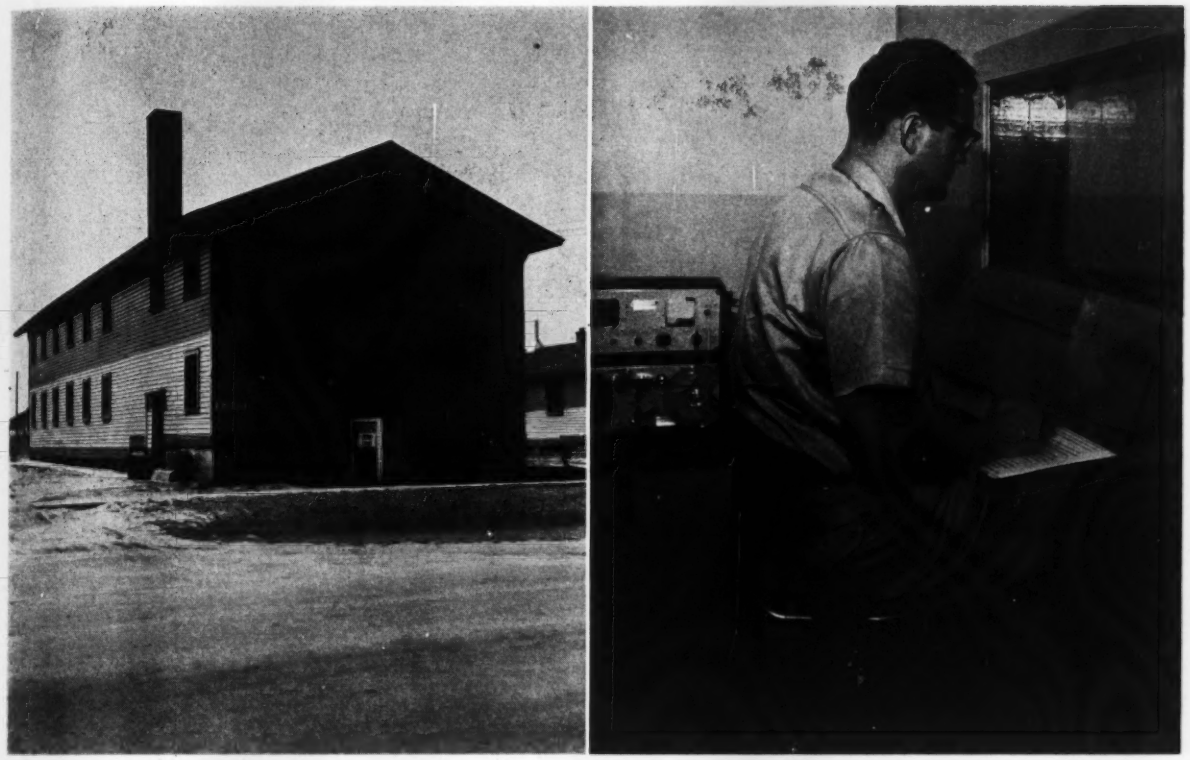
This paper concerns "The Lie Detector Operator Training Program at the United States Army Provost Marshal General's School." It is often difficult for a member of the civilian community to realize the vast and complex system of education within the structure of the United States Army. Many people imagine that Army training consists of drill, firing range practice, and KP. Of course this type of training is conducted but only in the soldier's basic training. Actually the army training system can be compared to a state educational system. We have our basic training corresponding to primary schools, branch training schools corresponding to high schools and colleges, and Department of the Army and Department of Defense schools corresponding to university postgraduate schools.

The branch service schools, for example the Infantry School, the Engineer School or The Provost Marshal General's School, have curricula approved by the Commanding General, Continental Army Command, after a review by the chief of the service exercising supervision over the school concerned. The Commanding General, Continental Army Command, in this case, would roughly correspond to the state board of regents in a state educational system and the chief of the individual service would correspond to a president of a state university.

The curriculum or program of instruction, as it is called in army parlance, of the lie detector operator's course at The Provost Marshal General's School is prepared under the direction of the Commandant of the School, acting for The Provost Marshal General.

The Provost Marshal General's School is located on the 55,000 acre Fort Gordon, Georgia, Military

Address: CWO-3 Edward A. Spohn, Lie Detector Section, Military Police Department, U. S. Army Provost Marshal General's School, Fort Gordon, Georgia.



(Left) Classroom and office building. The downstairs floor contains a classroom, eight examination rooms, and a rest room; the upstairs floor has a repair room, three offices, and twelve examination rooms. (Right) The observation rooms. The instructor is sitting behind the glass listening, observing, and evaluating the student's progress. In the rear is a tape recorder. The student's interview is recorded and played back as he listens. The instructor then utilizes the recording in his critique of the student.

Reservation, situated in the eastern section of the State of Georgia near the City of Augusta, site of the famous Masters Golf Tournament.

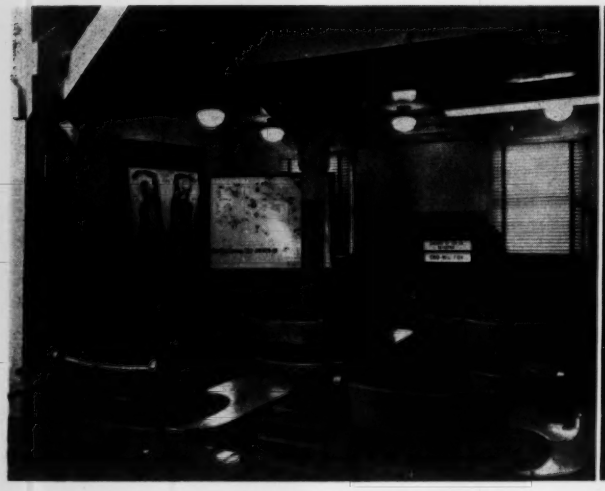
The school has the mission of training United States and Allied Army personnel in the science of law enforcement applicable to the military service. This training covers to a degree basic military training and military police training from the basic to the most advanced scientific methods applicable to law enforcement. Included in the more advanced training program presented at the school is the lie detector operator course.

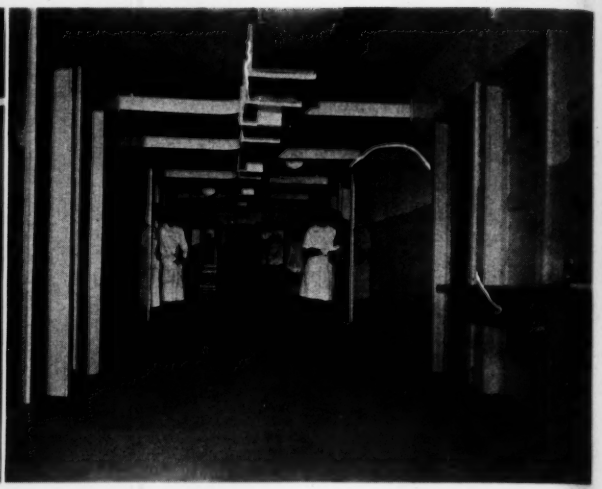
This course was first established in the summer of 1951 when it was determined that the needs of the military service would be better served by training military lie detector operators under the direct supervision of The Provost Marshal General. Prior to that time some military lie detector operators were trained at the Keeler Institute. Since the inception of this course every effort has been made to present the most comprehensive and complete instruction possible in the many phases involved in the training of lie detector operators.

In order to attend the lie detector operator's course a man must have satisfied a number of prerequisites. He must be an officer, warrant officer, or an enlisted man of the highest enlisted grade, on active duty, and over 25 years of age. He must be accredited as a criminal investigator by The Provost Marshal General, speak English fluently and be a proficient interrogator. He must have satisfactorily completed the basic criminal investigation course and have a minimum of one (1) year's active service in the criminal investigation field. In addition to these qualifications the man must have an Army Area Aptitude I score of 110 or higher. This area aptitude score corresponds generally to an intelligence quotient score.

Exceptions are made in these prerequisites in the case of certain federal law enforcement agencies and allied army military police agencies who desire to send their investigators to our course.

Prior to the beginning of each class, potential students are also given specific educational and psychological tests designed to reveal the degree of potentiality of the individual for training of this type. Such tests as the Otis Gamma Test, The American Council on Education Psychological Examination, the Lie Detector pre-course criminal investigation examination and a general knowledge test are administered to the students. Following the various tests, the student is interviewed by the instructors of the lie detec-





(Left) Classroom inside the examination building. It is used primarily to brief the students on the problems for the day. An additional classroom is made available for presenting formal academic instruction. (Right) Photograph of the upstairs hallway. The doorways running down the length of the hall are the entrances to the examination rooms. Each examination room is equipped with a Keeler or Stoelting lie detector, a desk containing a recess for the lie detector, a subject's chair and an operator's chair. All rooms contain a hidden microphone so that the student's interview with the subject can be monitored.

tor section to evaluate his appearance, personality traits, and ability to express himself. These steps afford us the opportunity to eliminate those individuals who show no obvious potential as lie detector operators.

The course is eight-weeks long and comprises 352 hours; 294 hours indicated in the outline are academic and 58 hours not indicated are considered non-academic. The instruction is further divided into two phases — the academic or classroom phase, and the p r a c t i c a l phase. Throughout the course the emphasis is on the practical application of the material presented.

The academic portion of the instruction covers the rudiments of lie detection and prepares the student for the applicatory phase which follows. The student is first introduced to the lie detector with thirty-five hours of mechanical training, which is devoted to teaching the student the function of each of the basic components of the various lie detecting sets in use in the military establishment. Twenty hours of this time is devoted to practical work by the student doing such things as assembling and disassembling sets, locating and correcting minor malfunctions, and operating the basic components individually and collectively.

Mechanical training is followed by nine hours of instruction on military law slanted toward the lie detector. Such topics as the Rules of Evidence, Jurisdiction, and Search and Seizure are discussed. I think it would be of interest if we mentioned briefly Article 31 of the Uniform Code of Military Justice. Article 31 is the military's version of the Fifth Amendment to the United States Constitution. Prior to any lie detector examination the military lie detector operator must read this entire article to the subject. Following the reading, the operator must explain the article and make sure that the subject understands his rights. The operator must then tell the subject that he does not have to take a lie detector examination if he does not desire to do so. Strange as it may seem, this does not present a problem to the military lie detector operator; most subjects volunteer to take the lie detector examination.

Twenty-four hours are devoted to studies of psychology and physiology as they relate to the lie detector. Work in psychology includes discussions of basic principles slanted toward the abnormal field. Such subjects as neuroses, psychoses, and the psychopath are discussed to determine possible interrogational approaches. Physiology is also discussed in classroom conferences. The nervous, cardiovascular, and respiratory systems and their significance in lie detector operation are studied.

Fifty hours of instruction are devoted to the techniques of detecting deception. Each phase of this portion of the total course is specifically designed to provide the student with the greatest amount of individual supervision. Fourteen hours of pretest interview techniques are presented in classroom discussion and demonstrations by instructor personnel. Students are then required to conduct pretest interviews under the supervision of an instructor who assists him in perfecting his technique. Ten hours of lie detector test construction, two

→

(Lower) The repair crew works on a damaged lie detector. Many armed forces units utilize the repair facilities of our school; it is not uncommon for our section to receive three or four lie detecting sets each week for repair.
(Upper) Students engaged in assembly and disassembly of a lie detector.

A student examines another student with a Stoelting Deceptograph, called AN/USS-2A in Army parlance.

hours of test graph markings, ten hours of chart interpretation, eight hours of interrogation techniques, and six hours of special peak of tension techniques are presented in a similar manner. Classroom presentation is always followed by practical application by the student.

About 159 hours of the total time allotted for the training are devoted to the practical application of the techniques for detecting deception. During this period the student conducts examinations based on both hypothetical and actual cases. The first week of this training period is usually occupied with hypothetical cases in which military personnel, utilized as subjects, commit a crime under the direction of an instructor. The students are then required to examine a group suspected of the offense to determine their veracity. These hypothetical cases are designed to be as realistic as possible. Individuals utilized as subjects are rotated so they will not become conditioned and unresponsive to the lie detector. As you can see, the student is afforded an opportunity to overcome his initial nervousness and gain confidence in himself and his instrument. It also affords an opportunity for the instructors to observe the student and critique his technique before he is assigned actual cases.

Throughout the course instructors are available to the students for individual instruction and assistance. During the practical phase of instruction each student is observed and critiqued daily so that he is aware of his progress and deficiencies.

The last three weeks of instruction are devoted to the examination of actual cases currently under investigation. The school has the cooperation of local and nearby military installations which furnish as many cases as possible. Students who are not engaged in the examination of actual cases continue with hypothetical cases. Graduates of the course examine a minimum of 40 persons prior to completion of the course. This is in addition to practical work done in pretest interviewing, interrogation, and mechanical training.

At this time I would like to mention just briefly the training facilities available to us at The Provost Marshal General's School. At present the lie detector classes are conducted in a specially constructed building containing twenty lie detector examination rooms in addition to offices, repair and supply rooms, and a classroom for presentation of academic subjects. Each of the examination rooms is equipped with a specially constructed lie detector desk and subject chair in addition to one of a variety of lie detecting instruments capable of recording three of the physiological phenomena having a direct relation to deception tests.

Since the school has no way of knowing what type of lie detecting instrument the graduate may be required to use, instruction and practice are provided in the operation of three models of the Stoelting Deceptograph in addition to the Keeler Polygraph. Upon graduation, the student is equally proficient in the operation of all of the currently accepted instruments.

The lie detector section of The Provost Marshal General's School is authorized seven instructors based on a ratio of one instructor per three students. This provides close supervision of the individual which is essential during the practical phase of the course. Military personnel assigned as instructors are selected lie detector examiners who have had wide experience in the field in various countries throughout the world. Prior to being assigned as instructors in the lie detector course, these individuals must attend a four-week course in instructor training during which time they are trained in the techniques of teaching. ★★★

G. I. GOURMETS

U. S. soldiers say their favorite foods are milk, hot rolls, biscuits, grilled steak, and strawberry shortcake. They turn thumbs down on fried parsnips, mashed turnips and creamed asparagus. This information, gleaned by Government survey, is intended to help make military menu planning more efficient, more palatable.

Professional Standards of the Police Service

By Chief Daniel S. C. Liu

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Out in the PARADISE OF THE PACIFIC, Chief Liu presides over the Police Department of Honolulu, where his record as the Chief Police Executive has attracted widespread attention. Chief Liu took the first merit system competitive examination ever given in the Honolulu Police Department. That was in 1932, shortly after a survey and reorganization of the Department had been completed. He was one of a handful from among two hundred sixty applicants who passed the examination. Chief Liu had the important experience of serving in every branch of the Department. He was a radio patrolman until January 1, 1935, when he was appointed Sergeant. He became a Lieutenant of Police on January 1, 1941, and at the same time was appointed Secretary of the Police Commission.*

Continuing his meteoric rise in the Department, on May 1, 1945, he was appointed Captain of Police, and became an Assistant Chief of Police on January 8, 1945. Three months later, the title was changed to Deputy Chief of Police. Then on July 24, 1948, following the retirement of Chief William Hoopai after thirty-four years of public service, Liu was named Chief of Police. A zealous exponent of a professionalized police service, Chief Liu was elected sixth Vice-President of the International Association of Chiefs of Police at the 1957 Annual Convention in Honolulu, and is now serving as the fifth vice-president.

IN its most basic form, we regard the question of standards pertaining to the police profession as beginning and ending with a consideration of moral principles. In between, there are various other important aspects most worthy of our contemplation, but these become of relatively hollow significance, unless they are based upon a sound foundation of morality. In police work the factor and the challenge and the critical question of morality loom larger and more constantly than perhaps in any other profession. And when we weigh moral aspects in professional service, we must necessarily look beyond the qualities expected of police in official capacities and concern ourselves also with the personal standards of men filling these positions.

We do this in recognition of the fact that human qualities, attributes and shortcomings are inescapably integrated with official character of position in professional service. The relationship between the professional character of a police official and the personal qualities and standards of such an individual must be critically regarded if we are to reach a realistic basis upon which to judge our professional potential.

Thus, in pursuing the question of "Professional Standards of the Police Service," we must examine the manner of men who provide motivation and control, example and leadership to the calling of law enforcement throughout the world.

The personal standards of individuals who reflect, by their expressions and deeds, the professional standards of police service do not in any material sense differ from the moral measurements in other fields of constructive endeavor. The qualities of integrity, honesty, justice, decency, benevolence, compassion, and all the other virtues which we look for in wholesome leadership throughout the world, are the same qualities that we desire to see represented over all of the police service. On the other hand, we regard as more shocking in police circles than in some other areas the vices of greed and avarice, selfishness and abuse of authority, in which the human mind and spirit all too readily indulge themselves.

Since, logically and fairly, the greater part of police leadership is produced from the ranks of officers established in service, we must at once concern ourselves with the quality and character of those who contemplate police service as a career. The source of our leadership should be assured and protected by two principal measures. These are: (1) Responsible selection of police chiefs according to established police standards; and (2) Maintenance of highest possible standards of recruitment, to insure sources of men and leadership for the future. Training and education, greatest moral expectation, and the best in technical excellence at all stages of police career are qualities which constitute accompanying consideration in the matter of assuring professional standards.

The progress of police work toward professionalization has been over a front which shows singular advances at isolated points. The main body, however, moves forward slowly and there are some areas revealing seriously retarded movement and even stagnation.

In our essentially conservative calling, leaning heavily as it does upon tradition, it is not surprising to find this a widely prevalent reflection of conditions. We must

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guard closely against complacency born of bland assumption that progress is gradually being achieved. It may be possible that the rate of progress is being unnecessarily hampered by the weight of police apathy which is the natural by-product and hazard of our protective civil service system. It may be, too, that we should strive harder at leadership level to achieve a mutuality of approach combining our resources into one universal effort toward the goals of our profession.

Sometimes intruding itself upon our ponderings toward the development of the professional character in police service is the nagging suspicion that our entire program of high aspiration may be founded upon an inherently hopeless basis. This is because police service, in an essential way, is ever vulnerable to the dictates and limitations imposed by the very nature of government and politics.

In our speculations regarding the future, we must carefully regard the question as to how professional standards can be insured by a police body subservient to and relying for its very existence upon agencies of various persuasions, whose sympathies are often entirely out of consonance with our own. Such agencies, be they soundly traditional in government or politically motivated in purpose, can quite conceivably, innocently or with calculation, choke off the growth and development of our professional character and our quality of service. This may be done by the simple expedient of denying said police body the lifeblood of sufficient funds, manpower and equipment, without which even routine operations can hardly proceed.

To insure against adverse influences upon professional standards in the police service, it becomes obvious that our most intensive and unrelenting efforts must be directed toward advancing public education, public understanding and public support in matters of police needs. It must be regarded as an essential part of our professional standards to strive unceasingly to establish for police a wholesome and responsible quality of independence from political impediment.

The emergence and identification of our professional standards are not as yet entirely realized. But we must be careful to guard against satisfaction in their mere identification. They must not thereafter be set aside in some special niche and reverently referred to only on certain occasions of state. If our standards are not living, breathing principles used as familiars to our profession, then they are not standards, but are simply remote ensigns meaningless in our daily applications.

We who recognize the need for consistency throughout all of the police service in the adherence to high professional standards, especially in police leadership, are confounded when an appointive authority holding office through political fortune can name individuals of incompetence or otherwise of undeserving character to police leadership. Action by appointive officials in accordance with police approved standards has not yet been assured.

The problem of separation of police efficiency and progress from the unhappy effects of political whim must be universally overcome before it can be assumed that professional standards in police service are permanently established. And the matter of permanence in any wholesome development is not a concern which is lightly included here. Any achievement toward a better status which we may see accomplished now or in the future carries no guarantee whatsoever that the effects of politics, criminality, or the relaxation of police guardianship may not bring an ultimate fall from professional quality.

It would be naive indeed for any experienced police official not to recognize that among the ranks of established policemen and the most promising recruits there are those who are all too strongly endowed in their selfish desires, ambitions and cupidity. Such persons, being constantly subjected to temptations and opportunity, inevitably produce the relatively few who bring police service a bad name and who by their illicit acts defer for all their honest associates a deserved place among the professions.

The fact that most police officials do remain faithful to their professional trust is sometimes obscured in the public mind by situations outstanding in the colorful annals of our profession. Certain spectacular departures from high professional standards live in history. The worst cases of police notoriety and defalcation become legend. The vast majority of good and often brave service is largely taken for granted. Perhaps this is as it should be.

It is a matter beyond question that a policeman or police official sworn to uphold and enforce the law is doubly a criminal if he violates the law—first, for committing a crime and, second, for failure to prevent the commission of a crime as it is his sworn duty to do.

More than that, it seems clear enough that an act which may be classified as a simple sin for a civilian is quite possibly a cardinal sin for a police official and in such a case should, in itself, constitute an actual crime.

It is a shocking thing when we occasionally hear of a moral transgression by a clergyman, because a minister of the gospel has assumed the responsibilities of a spiritual leader and is expected to set an example of good conduct for his more worldly followers.

The police official has equal responsibility with a man of the cloth to set an example in his private life as well as in his professional life. We can be sure that a police chief's influence for good or for evil will have a direct impact upon his community. That influence will also filter down through the various grades of his department even to the patrolman on the beat, at which significant level there again spreads throughout the

community the attitude of the department's leadership.

If a police official is honorable, just, morally and physically courageous, courteous and meticulously careful in making decisions, his subordinates will tend to follow the example.

Herbert Spencer once said, "Policemen are soldiers who act alone; soldiers are policemen who act in unison."

Another rather important difference is apparent here. A soldier—and particularly a soldier of Spencer's time—was trained to act in a military manner and to think as a military man. But once a policeman, and especially a police official, loses his civilian point of view he has lost most of his value to his department and to his community in the matter of police service.

A police official is a policeman who has been promoted to a special trust, usually through merit or seniority, or both. If, through avarice or weakness of moral fiber, a police official betrays that special public trust, he is as surely a traitor to his country and city and the profession of law enforcement as is the soldier who sells out to the enemy in wartime.

Determination to carry out his duties in the face of any difficulties whatever is, I believe, the most valuable trait in any police official—or, for that matter, in any man of responsibility. History is full of examples where the determination of one leader changed the course of nations, and we need go no further than the grim-faced George Washington whose magnificent courage and determination in the face of impossible odds brought freedom to the American colonies. Without George Washington we may well wonder if there could have been any United States. Some eighty years later the sheer determination and courage to meet issues face to face of one other great American saved our nation from dissolution. This great man and humanitarian was, of course, Abraham Lincoln.

But determination without accompanying qualities is not enough. There have been many other determined men whose names are written large in history but who brought only bloodshed, devastation and sorrow to the world. Attila the Hun was a determined man. So was Napoleon. So was Hitler. So was John Dillinger.

Determination must be backed up by moral character and a deep-rooted consideration for one's fellow man or that determination can become an evil trait rather than an attribute.

William Blackstone, sometimes called the father of modern law, defined a crime as "An act committed OR OMITTED in violation of a public law either forbidding or commanding it."

This definition, naturally, applies even more to police officials and policemen than to private citizens, for the policeman, be he directing traffic, walking a beat or sitting in the chief's office, far more than Caesar's wife, must be above reproach in both his public and private lives.

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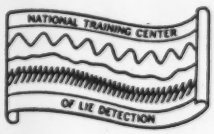

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To go back to the ancient philosophy of life passed down by Confucius, there is the principle of Chung, which may be roughly translated to mean positive action for the good of others and Shu, which could mean the exercise of care not to commit Blackstone's crime of omission. Chung and Shu together comprise Jen, or man of perfect virtue.

It seems to me that the Law Enforcement Code of Ethics and our Canons of Ethics really call for a man of "Jen." That these ethics have given police a lofty goal to aspire to, rather than a standard easy to meet. is most appropriate for a profession striving toward higher accomplishment.

In the Scriptures, Proverbs, 23rd Chapter, 7th verse, we read of man—"For as he thinketh in his heart, so is he." If we may make this application to our own immediate concern for police devotion to the welfare of mankind throughout the world we might paraphrase the Biblical expression to read: "For as the men in police service think in their hearts, so are they—and so will be the police profession." ★★★

LIVING

"We've broken through the sound barrier, we've split the atom, we've sputniked into outer space, but we still haven't solved the age-old problem of just living and getting along together."—*Dr. Carl C. Byers.*

Psychological Motivation of Juveniles

By Dr. Vernon V. Sisney

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This is the second in a series of two articles by Dr. Sisney. The first article appeared in the preceding issue of POLICE.*

A number of things become evident in working with juveniles. First, they are always testing limits. In other words, they are always testing how far they can go with the authority figure with whom they are keeping company. This is done in most any conceivable manner and many inconceivable directions. Sometimes it is in drawing pictures concerned with sex and attaching the therapist's name to it, making brags about how tough they are and how many escapades they have experienced; telling the therapist things in an effort to shock or upset him. For instance, they would talk about what they might do—break into some place, steal a car, or jump an officer, etc.

The therapist learned early not to express his apprehensions or undue concern about these various phantasies. Early in the group sessions it was noticed that some of the boys had cleats on their shoes. The toe cleat extended over the end of the shoe and turned at a right angle with the sole with the metal cap covering the toe. This part extended up about one inch. The heel was a metal plate resembling a horse shoe. The therapist asked one boy why he wore such unusual cleats and wondered if he was taking some sort of tap dancing. The reaction was quick and with much feeling. The boy stated that he wore the cleats to kick people with when he was fighting them. When asked if he might hurt someone seriously he quickly retorted, "You're damn right and that's what I intend to do." The next session, five out of the eight members had cleats on their shoes. Again the subject was brought up and the first boy gained much support from the new ones in the reason and intent for the cleats. Next session all members of the group had cleats.

In the interim, however, the therapist had done some soul searching. It was evident that I had played right into the neurotic needs of the group. They immediately noted that I had reacted to the danger and took advantage of it. They wanted to upset the therapist and felt this to be a good way to accomplish that end. One might say I reacted to them rather than interacted with them. It was decided that it would be necessary to join them since I obviously could not lick them. No, I did not put cleats on my shoes but when they arrived for the next meeting I beat them to the punch. I asked all to put their feet up on the table and I went about checking the cleats. One boy's cleats were loose and I advised him that he should have them fixed because they might come off. The group was rather confused at the behavior of the therapist. This went on for about four sessions. At the end of this time the therapist told the boys that he understood why they were wearing the cleats and that if he felt as they did he would probably wear cleats, too. When one boy asked what the therapist meant by the statement it was explained in simple matter-of-fact terms that he knew they were afraid and felt the need of some protection. It was added that when people are afraid they usually do something to make up the difference between them and those that threaten them. There was some reaction in the form of denial of fear—but not very much. They were not asked to show their cleats any more and the subject was dropped. The cleats gradually disappeared and about eight sessions later they were all gone.

This did not stop them testing the therapist. In fact it was, as mentioned above, always a testing situation especially at the beginning of the meeting. The therapist had to be alert at all times to avoid factors that would impede progress. It was soon found that one needs to join the group in phantasy to handle the situation adequately. This was done readily but in the end reality was brought back into the situation. In other words, if they wanted to talk about robbing a bank the therapist talked about robbing a bank and in the end they were brought around to talking about what they thought might happen as a consequence when they were caught. This satisfied their need of non-conformity, allowed them to express their anger verbally and even be punished without carrying out the act in reality. In other words, the impulsive action

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is carried to completion—obeying the impulse to consequences.

Now let us apply this situation to everyday contacts with juveniles. A negativistic, oppositional, hostile juvenile is a terribly frustrating individual to try to deal with. The officer is pushed to the limit of his frustration tolerance and then he usually joins the juvenile both in behavior and emotional regression. As a result the situation ends up by the two jockeying for the position of who is the most immature. The officer usually wins because he is bigger, stronger and has more difference in hardware. That is, he wins in the sense of being able to expel more of his aggressiveness on the juvenile. The juvenile really wins, however, in that he has accomplished his end—to frustrate the officer and bring him down to his level.

In reading this, one may say this is easy to talk about but when you have some delinquent cursing you, refusing to cooperate, gigging you or even spitting on you, the picture takes a different hue. It is then that the officer feels that all the brat needs is a good going over and he is just the fellow who can do it. Certainly the subject does need to learn limits but one or a dozen beatings by the officer is not going to accomplish this end. This but instills more hatred toward authority figures and society in general. It takes long term association with limits and understanding to bring about the change that is needed.

Most of our efforts at helping the juvenile are set up with the best intention—we lay out a plan and put it into effect. We are proud of ourselves because things seem to be going so well and then suddenly this unappreciative brat acts out—gets in trouble again. This frustrates us because our well-made plan has gone amiss. We either act out our anger or subdue it and try again. Just about the time we feel we have it made that incorrigible little rat has done it again. Each time it happens the more frustrated we become and the less tolerance we have for this behavior that we feel is unacceptable. About four or five tries is the usual limit and then we resort back to the old method of clobbering. It is completely without understanding that this delinquent would persist in such behavior after all we have done for him.

The point is that behavior patterns do not change readily and in fact we resist any change at all. After all, the manifest behavior is one we have arrived at in our effort to cope with life and we therefore defend it even though it may work against us to create much frustration in others.

Every person has a phantasy life. This is the part of us that daydreams, imagines things or works out plans. Children tell their parents phantastic tales about many and varied happenings, and when they are young we can accept these stories to some degree, but as they grow older we become apprehensive to put a squelch on them. After all this sort of thing cannot persist in adult life and get along with people or be accepted as normal. We even tell a child that he should

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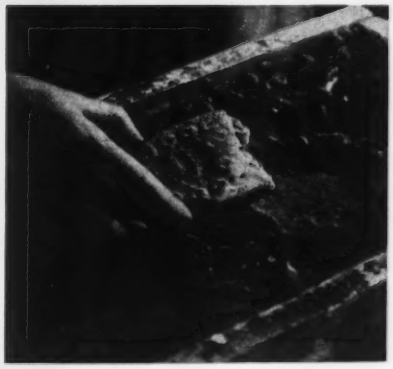

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California Features Institute

Completion of the First Police Line Supervisory Institute at Los Angeles State College was recently announced by G. Douglas Gourley, Head of the Department of Police Science and Administration. This five day Institute placed special emphasis on recent developments in police supervisory techniques. Participants in the program included over 150 police sergeants and supervisors from over thirty law enforcement agencies.

The Institute was directed by Allen P. Bristow, Assistant Professor of Police Science and Administration. This was the fourth such Institute presented by Los Angeles State College. Programs planned for the balance of the year include a Burglary Institute and an Auto Theft Institute.

The above photo includes, from left to right in front row center: Rex Andrews, Chief of Police, Burbank, California, lecturer at the Institute; G. Douglas Gourley; and Allen P. Bristow.

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not think some things—that they are not nice, wrong or even sinful. This causes the child to repress, or inhibit the expression of his phantasy life.

The juvenile delinquent is usually a child who has not been able to keep his emotional maturity up to the same level as his chronical age or physiological maturity. Society is geared more to age and size and therefore demands certain behavior regardless of the emotional maturity. This is where the trouble starts because we are controlled by our emotional life. In the treatment of the juvenile one has to work with the emotional age and in a sense join the child at his level. If he wants to talk about beating up cops the therapist lets him and may even encourage such verbalization. The better able the therapist is to "get with the patient" the better chances the patient has for a more adequate adjustment. The therapist gradually draws the child to him and in the same process, to more emotional maturity.

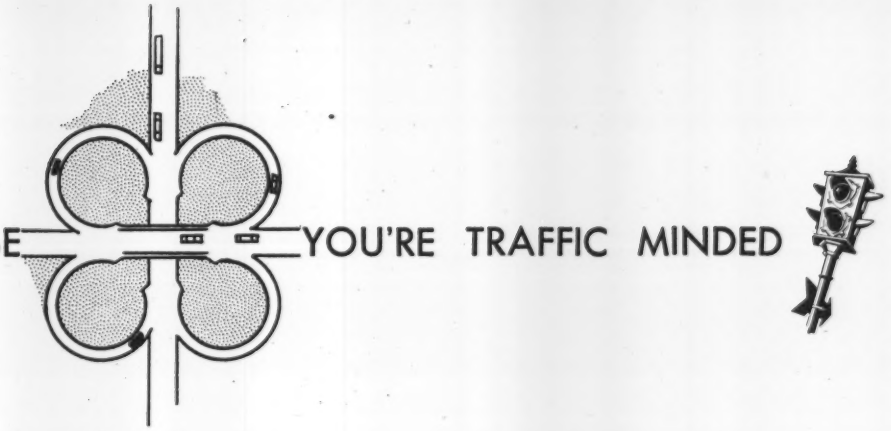
This is a slow and time-consuming procedure, resulting in many slips and errors. The therapist must be ever alert to keep up with his young patient.

Two important factors are outstanding in the juvenile who becomes delinquent. These are the need for "status" and the expression of "aggressive hostility." Every individual has a need for status, a need to stand out against the crowd, to be respected as an individual, an entity. By the same token each person has a need to express his feelings of anger and frustration. In the delinquent the method employed in fulfilling these needs just happens to take a course that crosses the boundaries of socially acceptable behavior. Some people are able to gain satisfaction in the group with which they are associated—school, football, baseball, debate, scholastic average, or club. Some take the direction of stealing cars, burglarizing, or ganging some innocent individual. You may wonder how such behavior could gain status for anyone. Strangely enough it does, whether or not the individual is caught. For instance, a boy steals a car, maybe four or five cars in one night, and gets away with it. The next day at school it just "leaks" out that a certain boy took these cars just for the "kicks." Soon other students are pointing at this boy, saying, "that's the one." He is a tough "cookie." If he gets caught he is taken to court and has a record and usually a nice write-up in the newspaper that he can brag about. Status at any cost. The hostility he has toward his parents, and has taken out on society, is also expressed in this manner. If the boy is caught the police summons the parents into court to accept responsibility and in some cases make restitution. They are usually embarrassed and may react with anger or shame. Regardless of how they react the child makes the parent "bleed," so to speak, by being hauled into court.

If an individual can gain a feeling of being someone in the home, that he is a valued member of the family group, he does not have to seek desperately to fulfill this need outside the home. He falls into the family pattern and is guided to behavior similar to his parents. If he feels rejected, unloved and unwanted he may turn to delinquency to make a place for himself in the world.

It is important for people working with the juvenile to remember that his present behavior is the composite result of all the experiences he has had in the past. He is not being belligerent or negativistic because of his present predicament. He is but defending himself in the best way he knows how under the circumstances. This means, for instance, that most of the feelings of which the officer is the recipient are the result of displacement. The juvenile is angry, feels hurt or rejected by his parents and when his ego is threatened he reacts in the way he has learned to defend himself. Unless the officer keeps this point in mind he is prone to becoming emotionally involved and himself threatened. When the emotions take over, objectivity goes out of the window.

This does not mean that the juvenile should be coddled nor handled with kid gloves. Limits are necessary and must be enforced but the method of enforcement needs to be done on an objective rather than subjective basis. ★★★



The Prevention of Injury and Death from Road Traffic Accidents

By William Gissane

The Editor has asked for a report of the Road Injuries Research Group established on July 1, 1960, at the Birmingham Accident Hospital, England, and sponsored by the Automobile Association of Great Britain on behalf of its two and one-half million members.

Such a report must be a matter for the future. This survey is concerned with some general aspects of road accident injury causation and the part the new Research Group may take in their prevention.

THE ROAD ACCIDENT PROBLEM

Britain's first motor car fatality occurred on the 17th of August, 1896, when Miss Bridgett Driscoll was run down and killed at Crystal Palace, South London. Since then approximately 250,000 people have been killed in road traffic accidents in Great Britain. The greatest number of fatalities in any one year was 9,169 in 1941 (4,781 of these were pedestrians). In that year war conditions, strict black out, associated difficulties of traffic control, and the unlimited speeds of despatch riders, were undoubtedly in a large part responsible. The greatest number of road casualties, however, occurred in 1959 when, for the first time in Great Britain, they exceeded 300,000 with fatalities over 6,000.

In the United States the first motor vehicle fatality of which there is any record occurred in New York City in 1899. Since that date the United States has lost more of its people from road accidents than in all its wars. In 1958 approximately 37,000 people were killed and over 1,350,000 were injured seriously enough to be disabled beyond the day of the accident. The U. S. Public Health Service estimate that in that year about 4,700,000 road injuries occurred involving one or more days of restricted activity and requiring medical attention. On the basis of the latter figure it has been predicted that one person in every ten in the U. S. will be injured or killed in motor vehicle accidents within the next four years. A somewhat similar picture comes from the study of road accident statistics from European countries and from other sources.

On this evidence, accidents generally, and road accidents particularly, represent one of the greatest epidemics in the history of Medicine. This particular epidemic is unique. All others have been caused by such external agents as bacteria or viruses and have generally been sporadic. This one is man-made, world-wide and continuous. There is no evidence that it is lessening.

It is considered, in Great Britain, that the road accident component of the epidemic has not yet reached its peak. It is known that the numbers and severity of injuries and deaths are related to the numbers and the speed of vehicles on our roads. Since it is anticipated that, by 1970, there will be ten to twelve million private vehicle owners as compared with the present five and a half million, the existing casualty and fatality figures may well be doubled by the end of the present decade.

Even now accidents and predominantly road accidents, are the commonest cause of death in all males up to the age of forty-five years, and road accidents account for one third of all male deaths in "the years of promise" – i.e. between the ages of twenty to twenty-four.

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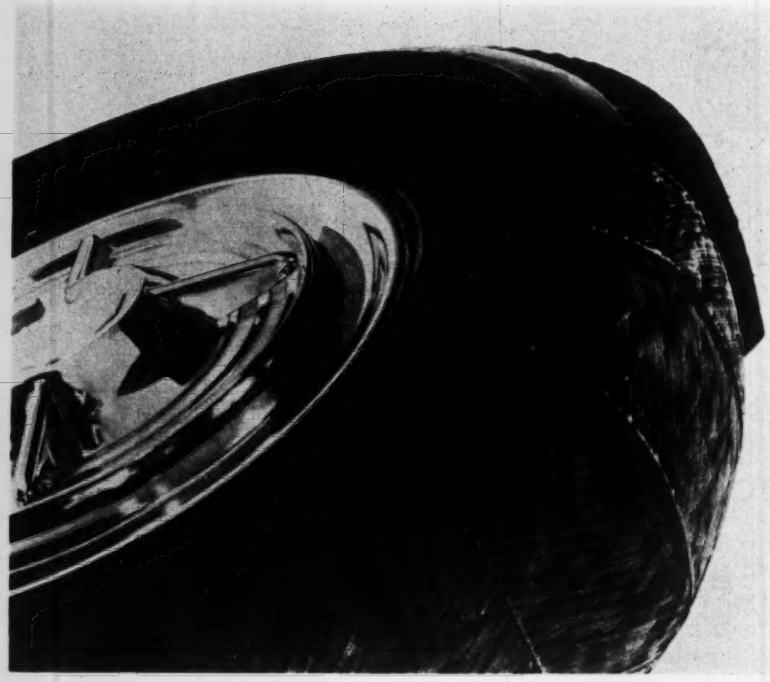

A section of the rubber casing of this tire has been stripped away to reveal the nylon tire cord which supplies the "muscle" that resists the crushing weight and impacts of driving. Drivers checking air pressure at the service station should check also for cuts as well as worn treads for cords other than nylon, such as Tyrex rayon, may deteriorate with moisture and dangerously weaken the tire.

. . . Photo courtesy of The Chemstrand Corporation . . .

SOME MEDICAL ASPECTS IN ACCIDENT PREVENTION

It is known that human failure overshadows all other factors in the production of road accidents. The human mechanism must at all times be in good condition to meet the split second decisions often called for on speed-controlled and uncontrolled roads. On the available evidence there can be no doubt that poor judgment, impaired reaction time, fatigue, faulty attitudes, emotional disturbances and physical and mental disabilities are basically responsible for the majority of road accidents.

Alcohol is known to be the responsible factor in many road accidents attributed to speed and reckless driving. Detailed studies in selected areas of the U. S. show that approximately 50% of the fatal accidents involved a drinking (as distinct from a drunken) driver. No data on a national scale, relating alcohol to road injuries, is yet available. This matter urgently requires further medical study. The role of other drugs in accident causation is less well understood. Yet numerous drugs, either self prescribed or taken under medical direction, produce reactions impairing the ability of some individuals to properly control a motor vehicle. In addition, some people experience unusual reactions to drugs that in others do not produce disabling reactions.

The analgesic drugs, hypnotics and sedatives, not only depress the central nervous system, producing drowsiness and sleep, they also may produce other motor and sensory changes. During the initial period "tranquilizing" drugs can produce drowsiness but they can also produce short periods of faintness and giddiness.

Antihistamines and drugs taken for car or motion sickness exhibit marked individual differences with dizziness and drowsiness occurring fairly frequently. It is unpredictable in which individuals these symptoms will occur.

There is a large group of diseases that do not prevent the patient living a normal or near normal life, yet may make driving a motor vehicle unsafe, and the drugs taken for their treatment may accentuate this state. A conscientious patient suffering from one of these conditions may ask his medical adviser if it is safe to drive a car. More frequently the doctor, recognising his responsibilities to his patient and to the public, may have to caution against driving temporarily or permanently. In this regard the physical and mental demands of the task of driving must be considered. There are roughly three divisions of this task. The driver of a private car who can often select the time of his journey and the route, and the drivers of commercial or passenger vehicles who cannot generally choose either the time or the route, or how many hours they must spend continuously at the task. Medical men must keep these matters in mind when advising their patients on their fitness to drive. When such advice is not accepted the doctor should advise his patient to report the nature of his illness on his next application for renewal of his driving license and insurance. This is in the patient's own interest. Should his medical condition, either directly or indirectly, be a contributing cause of an accident in which he is involved and if he has not divulged his illness to the licensing and insurance authorities, his Insurance Company may refuse liability.

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF CAR DESIGNERS AND MANUFACTURERS IN ROAD ACCIDENT PREVENTION

The present and increasingly serious epidemic of road accidents is considered by some, perhaps by all, car manufacturers to be the inevitable result of the age of power and speed in which we live, work and play. This age, however, is also shared by the

aviation industry. Almost from its start that Industry related progress in aviation engineering with the tolerance of the human element and its safety. There was an orderly progress in aviation with regard to engineering, medicine, biology and adjacent fields of knowledge.

The development of the car industry (except in very recent years in the U. S. and even there to a small extent) has been the exclusive reserve of automobile engineers.

The design of the first car was almost identical with the slow moving horse drawn vehicle it replaced. In the first two decades of this century metal was introduced into the design of car bodies, together with steering wheels and progressive shift transmissions and electric lights. In the third decade came safety glass, automatic windshield wipers, four wheel brakes, shock absorbers and all metal wheels. The next decade brought further engineering improvements, including the all metal body and roof, low pressure tires, indirect lighting of the instrument panel and better head lamps. The last decade has seen the introduction of automatic transmissions, further tire improvements and automatic windshield washers, direction indicators, powered steering, improved acceleration, tubeless tires and continuous improvements in engineering performance.

This is an incomplete list of progress but is evidence that the main objective of the industry has been to produce an up-to-date, reliable, engineering product, attractive in style and economic to run and maintain. It is accepted that the industry operates on an extremely competitive market and that proven safety features, if incorporated in car design, will add to the cost of a motor vehicle and may temporarily adversely affect sales. Yet the industry has a responsibility to the public to plan for much more safety in design than now exists. It takes at least three to four years from the planning stage to the production of a modern motor vehicle, and road accidents increase in numbers each year.

Safety seat belts, as this made with Chemstrand nylon, not only deter injuries resulting from accidents but also reduce fatigue on long trips by snugly fitting the driver and passengers and reducing the strain of staying in place on normal stops and turns. . . . Photo courtesy of the Chemstrand Corporation, New York.

Mr. John Moore of the Cornell Automotive Research Group has published important evidence following a detailed analysis of injuries relating to existing American car design.

1. In 50% of injury producing accidents one or more of the doors of the vehicle have opened during crash impact.

2. 30% of the occupants were ejected from these vehicles.

3. Ejections from a vehicle more than doubles the risk of moderate to fatal injury.

4. In most ejection and non-ejection road accidents the injured are hurt "all over" and not in one place.

5. Body areas are injured as follows: 75% face and head; 50% the extremities; 34% the chest; 12% the pelvic region; 7% about the neck.

6. In injury producing car accidents 28% of the occupants escaped injury, 45% have minor injuries, 24% had moderate or critical injuries, and 5% are killed.

7. 56% of the causes of all injuries were by ejection, contact against the instrument panel, windshield and steering column.

8. 40% of the drivers were injured by the steering wheel, 38% of the front seat passengers by the instrument panel.

Since American road and car design differ from ours a similar study is needed for urban and rural injury producing accidents in Great Britain.

Moore's important research findings have a clear application to American safety car design, and give a lead to safer design of British vehicles (once research in this country has proved the relation of human to vehicle damage). The American car manufacturers responsibility to safer design as a result of Moore's research should cover:

1. Overall mechanical stability of the body of the vehicle to prevent or lessen the degree of structural collapse following crash impacts.

2. Attention to the secure design of doors and their closing and locking mechanism to prevent them opening after crash impact.

3. A stronger seat fastening design incorporating safety belts, in order to secure the driver and the passengers within the car and prevent them from

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being ejected or thrown about and striking the interior projecting structures.

In order of attention, protection should be given to (1) the head. (2) the chest and neck. (3) the limbs.

4. The designer should smooth out all interior fittings and provide safety padding to all those likely to come in contact with the driver or its occupants after a crash.

5. General improvement in the driver's environment should aim at the elimination of fatigue by well designed seating and good ventilation and allow clear forward and backward vision.

6. Design should eliminate all sharp projecting features on the outside of the vehicle fore and aft to lessen impact damage to both pedestrians and other vehicles.

THE NEED FOR FURTHER RESEARCH IN GREAT BRITAIN

The Road Research Laboratory at Slough, England, for some years has made important contributions to better road design and the prevention of road accidents by the safer planning of road furniture—i.e. lighting, controlled pedestrian crossings, cycle ways, refuge islands, etc., etc. Planning an orderly flow of traffic is a most important contribution to road safety, particularly when such plans are made against the background of research on the causation of road traffic accidents.

Although research in Great Britain compares favorably with that of other European countries, it is still very small in comparison with research in the United States.

The Road Injuries Research Group based on the Birmingham Accident Hospital represents new research in Great Britain. The hospital receives approximately 4,000 road injuries each year. From its records the details of these injuries are available, together with important medical evidence on the factors that may have been directly or indirectly the cause of the accident. In addition, the Group will send out research observers to the accident site to collect evidence on vehicle damage in order to relate that damage to the detail of the occupants' injuries. The Group work in the closest cooperation with the Birmingham Police and Ambulance Services and with the Birmingham Coroner and his staff. By collecting all the evidence of human and vehicle damage it is hoped, among other things, to influence the safer design of future British road vehicles.

The Group is also concerned in the causes of injury to road users other than car occupants.

The Road Research Laboratory of England has already shown, on the basis of vehicle miles travelled, that the chances of being killed in a car, on a bicycle and on a motor cycle are of the ratio 1: 4: 23. From preliminary studies already made by the Injuries Research Group of the evidence of death and injuries to the riders of two wheeled vehicles, it seems clear that they receive their most serious injuries after they have been thrown off their vehicle. Typically, a motor cyclist or pedal cyclist becomes unbalanced when his front tire grazes the offside back mudguard of a car travelling in the same direction, he is then ejected from his bike to be injured against, or under, traffic moving in the opposite direction.

This evidence corresponds to research findings in the United States where ejection from motor cars has been proved to double the incidence of death and serious injuries.

The wearing of safety harness can save a car occupant from ejection risks. No such safety device is yet available to the riders of two wheeled vehicles. This has an immediate significance. The Road Traffic (Driving of Motor Cycles) Bill was considered in Committee by the House of Lords and approved on the 19th of July, 1960. The Bill lowers the age to fifteen for riding a moped. Fortunately the Minister has promised not to reduce the minimum age until he is satisfied it is safe to do so.

There is still a lot of research work to be done to impress those in authority in all countries of the serious nature of the existing road accident position and the practical implications of accident and injuries research and statistics.

The Police System of Thinking

By Lt. Colonel William A. Wiltberger

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This is the second in a series of two articles by Colonel Wiltberger. The first appeared in the Nov.-Dec. issue of POLICE.*

THE Municipal police department is only one of the instruments of local government. There is an interdependence between neighboring communities, the state and federal government. There is an essential requirement of understanding, cooperation and coordination of effort between the local police and these other law enforcement or investigational agencies. Characteristics and policies of municipal government vary according to the characteristics of the local community which they serve. The divergent customs, other environmental conditions and the habits of people in areas or regions also result in some divergent policies of the local government and the police among these areas. The attitudes of people, size and type of population, the moral and cultural standards, economic conditions, group interests, political elements and machines, public and social welfare organizations, churches, schools, homes, press, and the individual civic leaders, all contribute to the pattern of community thinking and social action.

These community characteristics affect the police problems and influence the police systems used in the solution of these problems. These elements influence the policies of the municipal government which in turn influence the policies of the police department. Thus the police systems applied in the various types of communities of the country may properly reflect many different police systems. Sometimes such differences of systems in certain cities, are the basis for unwarranted criticisms by persons who are unfamiliar with the police system of thinking, and who worship certain doctrines. There are also instances in which a police official may be correctly applying modern police systems which are too advanced or implemented too fast for that community, with a resulting jeopardy of his position. We find other instances in which a police official may lag behind community thinking in the proper application of modern police systems. These are illustrations of the failure to properly evaluate the basic elements of the community and local government which are related to the police problems.

Experienced members of the profession are aware of many important factors in a community which are related to the police problem, but which are too numerous to discuss at this time. One other important element, however, is the related agencies in the administration of criminal justice. The general public is not fully aware of the impact of this human treadmill of criminals upon the solution of police problems. They often fail to appreciate the full significance of the accumulative effect upon local police problems of the many deficiencies in the various systems of the machinery of criminal justice. The good citizens become quite concerned about the solution of police problems which come close to home in their community. But, as the endless chain of criminal justice unfolds from arrest by the police to prosecution, conviction, probation, rearrest, prosecution, conviction, sentence to prison, parole, etc., public interest usually decreases.

We have all observed that too frequently in some places and some times, there are members in the other branches of the administration of criminal justice who fail in their own professional standards. Such conditions have a tremendous and often disastrous effect upon the normally serious and complex police problems of major crimes. Such a situation also influences the selection and effectiveness of the police systems used in the solution of problems. When there is a mockery of criminal justice in a community, the police official of that city must use a most competent police system of thinking in the evaluation of conditions and implement a most skillful application of police systems in the solution of problems in that city. Therefore, related problems in our complex and interdependent society have an important influence on the police system of thinking.

It is necessary that we briefly observe some of the elements in the police department systems and the individual qualifications of professional policemen, which appear to be important to their system of thinking. If we take a good look at the historical development of modern police organizations and the internal administrative and operational systems, we realize the tremendous growth and progressive achievement of a police profession. We have observed the recent rapid growth

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of a great volume of professional police literature, such as magazines and journals, research papers, manuals, training films, books, etc. We now have great police professional libraries which are available to police students, recruits and members of the police field. During my short span of life, as a student and professional policeman, we have progressed from the slow but practical school of experience and individual informal study, to a great system of in-service training schools within departments, vocational training programs sponsored by professional organizations and located in special schools, colleges and universities, and the National Police Academy of the Federal Bureau of Investigation.

For the past twenty-eight years we have had a continuous growth and improvement of professional police educational programs in the colleges and universities available for the qualified high school graduate who seeks professional preparation in the police career field. These programs have advanced from the bachelor degree offerings to the current opportunities for advanced degrees. It should be noted in passing, that these existing professional education programs cannot supply the demands of law enforcement agencies for recruits. Nor can the in-service and vocational training programs meet the increased training demands of the police departments. We have also observed in our historical growth a greater public esteem, respect and cooperation with the professional police service. These historic developments are but a few of the valid manifestations of achievements in advanced professional police standards in an improved police system of thinking.

Another element in the progress of a professional police standing is the recent adoption of a formal code of ethics by the International Association of Chiefs of Police. This formal acceptance of such standards by international police leaders reflects a growth from individual ethical ideals to prescribed department doctrine, and now to a universally accepted standard in the police system of thinking. There has always been a high level of individual ethics among the successful professional police, comparable to that of the other professions of a particular time and place. This standard has always been a requirement in a competent police system of thinking.

A proper combination of police knowledge and experience is becoming an increasingly important element in the development of our current police system of thinking and the attainment of accepted professional standing. In the early development of the police service there was a comparatively limited body of police and related knowledge. This was also true of the other vocations and professions. The school of experience and individual informal professional study was the custom and requirement for success in the police field. But with the constantly increased body of knowledge in the police systems, in-service departmental schools become necessary to augment the experience requirements. Recruits could not become quickly integrated into existing departmental police systems without first learning the fundamentals of police work which the experienced men had learned through the trial and error method.

Then new concepts were developed, beginning in 1916, for the use of the great facilities and offerings of colleges and universities to augment the in-service training programs for the professional policeman. This movement began under the great leaders of that period, such as, Commissioner Arthur Woods of the New York City Police Department and Chief August Vollmer of Berkeley, California. From this trend the subsequent step of professional pre-service police education was soon initiated. If we examine this concept carefully, we will observe that the trend of all the professions requires this type of preparation for the effective system of thinking in each field. Those in any field who merely read the books, or listen to profound lectures in the university class room, cannot acquire the true professional system of thinking without a considerable practice in the school of experience. Even our most advanced educational concepts today advocate that students take courses which require on the job experience in their career fields. The purpose is not to acquire technical proficiency during the lower division courses, but to become acquainted with the typical situations and general problems of their profession, so that they may later have a better understanding of the arts and sciences as applied to their profession. Technical experience is then acquired during the upper division program. The successful college and university police schools have also integrated police experience type courses into their curriculum. Most police department in-service schools have also combined theory and experience. It is therefore evident that it is the combination of professional police education, departmental in-service training, and long experience in the field, which are the practical requirements for achieving future advancement in the police system of thinking.

The police service has made great advances in its public relations efforts. This is a necessary factor in the police system of thinking. The police may utilize the most comprehensive and advanced type of police systems in the solution of police problems, but if the public does not understand the systems and the objectives, they cannot intelligently give the required budgetary support, comply with necessary public procedural requirements or develop a friendly attitude of cooperation. Experts may conceive what is good for the public, but the public generally has fixed ideas on what is good for them. Someone has said, "Law enforcement success is the persuasion of the great majority of the people to comply with the law, and using the force of law to secure compliance by the minority who refuse to comply." Under our concepts of government, the

people are the sovereign power. In a final analysis we are dedicated to serve the people. A full understanding and cooperation by the people, is a successful factor in the police system of thinking.

As we have all observed, it is evident that the selection of qualified personnel who are adapted and dedicated to the police profession is a requirement for a competent police system of thinking. It is natural that certain people are inherently adapted to the requirements of the police system of thinking, while some are not. In the early development of the police service, the school of experience was the determining factor in the survival of the fit and the elimination of the unfit. Today, we have gone a long way in selection standards. We compare favorably with the other professions and in some cases are even superior. These standards were greatly improved when we were able to shake off the various political controls in the selection of police recruits. Police selection standards, which have a widespread acceptance, include a careful character investigation, high standards of physical and mental health, intelligence, successful completion of written examinations, and a minimum requirement of a high school education. We should observe, that compared with the other accepted professions, we lack only the requirement of a police pre-service education before entrance into the profession. We have the beginning of this in our numerous professional police schools. At present, however, these schools cannot supply the demand. Until the majority of colleges and universities cooperate and realize the need for this important professional education, such a prerequisite requirement for entrance to the police service cannot be accomplished, other than in some exceptional location. Another requirement for the establishment of pre-service professional training is the need of an accrediting program for professional education and training schools by the leading professional organization, such as the International Association of Chiefs of Police. In the experience of our modern successful standards of the selection of qualified police personnel we have been able to meet our accepted requirements. These high selection standards are required in the police system of thinking.

There are many traits and qualities required of individual members of the police service and essential to the system of thinking. I do not feel competent at this time to list these qualities, many of which are intangible and nebulous. A few of the long accepted standards should suffice at this time, and may be listed as: integrity, loyalty, courage, ideals of service, leadership, professional dedication, a sympathy for humankind, the binding ideals of a promise, self discipline, an inquisitive nature, a sense of humor, keen and discriminating observation, ability to make a quick and comprehensive analysis of situations, and a fast and accurate decision in the solution of police problems. All of these and more appear to be necessary to a competent police system of thinking.

Police Officers receive certificates of graduation after completion of the 10th Annual Motor Vehicle Fleet Supervisors' Course at Northeastern University, Boston. Making the presentation is Professor Robert H. Sheehan, (left) head of the University's new Department of Law Enforcement and Security. Theodore Kromen, (center) is Garage Superintendent for the St. Louis, Missouri, Metropolitan Police Department. Nicholas J. O'Brien, (right) is a detective with the New Haven, Connecticut, Police Department.

It is difficult to measure the competence of a police system of thinking, except in the most relevant terms. We must remember that it is the dynamic intellectual content of the police system. We cannot compare the degree of competence of police leaders by a comparison of crime or cleared by arrest rates, of one community with another. The crime rate of a community is a charge against the community. The characteristics of communities, local governments and the police problems reflect a considerable difference in their basic considerations. If we can properly evaluate all of these conditions at a particular time and place, then we can evaluate the relative competence of the police system of thinking of the police department, the police officials and the individual members, by their capability for evaluation of the police problems and related conditions, and the effective application of appropriate police systems, which result in successful solutions of these problems, according to police objectives.

In conclusion, it is my belief that there is a particular system of thinking which is essential to and characteristic of the police profession; that individuals and police organizations acquire various levels of proficiency in the professional system of thinking according to their qualifications, education, training and experience; that there is a certain universal level of a system of thinking acquired by all experienced policemen, which is characteristic of the police profession. In general, we might say that if a proper evaluation is being made of the police problems and related conditions, effective police organization, administration and operation systems are being applied, and the solutions are improving the major problems, then we have an indication of a successful police system of thinking. ★★★

Education Fosters Informal Police Coordination

By Richard O. Hankey

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The author is an Associate Professor of Police Administration at Los Angeles State College of Applied Arts and Sciences. Professor Hankey is a former member of the Berkeley Police Department. He served as a Military Government Public Safety Officer during World War II, and was director of law enforcement training at the College of the Sequoias, Visalia, California.*

Knowledge is always moving forward, and knowledge is increased through cooperative effort. In order to be scientific and professional investigators, we must, among other things, be impartial, observant, and record everything we learn." With these words, Dr. Theo J. Curphey, Coroner of Los Angeles, opened the Second Homicide Investigation Institute at the Los Angeles State College of Applied Arts and Sciences, and exemplified the environment in which the institute was born and has continued to grow.

Two years ago, at the invitation of the Department of Police Science and Administration, Los Angeles State College, members of the Los Angeles Police Department, the Los Angeles County District Attorney's Office, the Los Angeles County Coroner's Office, the Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department, The Department of the California Highway Patrol, and the Arcadia Police Department, met as a planning committee to develop the first homicide institute on the Pacific Coast. At the outset the planning committee decided that the basic approach would be teamwork, in that the successful investigation and prosecution of a criminal homicide involves action on the part of a number of agencies each of whom play an important and vital role. These agencies are conceived of as members of a team, with the thought that each member must play his part with the highest degree of intelligence and skill towards the successful completion of a homicide investigation.

With this goal in mind, the planning committee designed the program of instruction for the generalist in crime investigation, such as field detective or police officer, who may occasionally perform a preliminary investigation at the scene of a possible homicide. Subject matter and instruction were to emphasize the team approach in which criminal investigators, medical men, and prosecuting attorneys work together to identify crimes, solve them, and prosecute the criminals involved. Within this frame of reference, the planning committee developed a program which included the following subjects: (a) general considerations of homicide investigation, principles, problems, preliminary procedures, and motives; (b) press relations; (c) murder unrecognized; (d) preliminary and special considerations of interrogation; (e) preservation of evidence; (f) determination of time of death, identification of bodies, clues from the autopsy, and post mortem artifacts; (g) vehicle homicide; (h) alcohol and fatal traffic accidents; (i) alcohol, homicide, and suicide; (j) unusual cases, poison, gunshot, asphyxiation, cutting, stabbing, burning, and electrical; (k) legal aspects of homicide investigation, case preparation, testifying in court, demonstration evidence, and the role of the judge.

The planning committee selected instructors for the institute who had wide experience and knowledge in specific subject areas as well as outstanding instructional ability. This instructional staff included nineteen persons from seven different agencies. Each instructor submitted an outline of the material he was to cover which was reproduced and distributed to the enrollees of the institute.

The institute was scheduled for four one-day sessions of six hours each for four successive weeks. An enrollment fee of ten dollars was charged. Certificates were awarded to those participants who satisfactorily completed the course of instruction.

Almost two hundred law enforcement officers representing seventy agencies in the Southern California area attended the first homicide investigation institute. The instruction was enthusiastically received. At the end of the institute, the participants were given a rating sheet and asked to evaluate the instruction as well as submit comments and suggestions for future institutes. The results of the rating and comments were used in planning the second homicide investigation institute.

The second homicide investigation institute held during March and April of this year was developed in much the same manner of the first. Two additional agencies were represented on the planning committee, namely, Burbank Police Department and Pasadena Police Department.

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Members of the team of the Second Homicide Investigation Institute held at Los Angeles State College of Applied Arts and Sciences, March 17, 24, 31 and April 7, 14, 1960. Part of the instructional staff is represented in the front row; from left to right, Richard O. Hankey, Associate Professor of Police Administration, Los Angeles State College, Director of the Institute; Joseph L. Carr, Deputy District Attorney, Los Angeles County, member of the planning committee and instructor; Ellery E. Cuff, Public Defender, Los Angeles County, instructor; Robert W. Hall, Pacific Telephone and Telegraph Company, instructor; The Honorable Leroy Dawson, Judge of the Superior Court, Los Angeles County, instructor; and Chief Wayne H. Bornhoft, Fullerton Police Department, instructor.

The instruction in the second institute was designed to cover the investigation of a homicide from the first report through its various stages and agencies up to and including the trial in superior court. Subjects included were: (a) public relations, (b) duties and responsibilities of the first man at the scene, (c) photography and sketching, (d) collection and preservation of evidence, (e) preliminary statements, (f) disposition of the body, (g) the detective and the autopsy, (h) the homicide investigation case book, (i) interrogation, (j) the criminalist and the toxicologist, (k) the complaint conference, (l) the coroner's inquest, (m) the grand jury, (p) the preliminary hearing, (q) the trial in superior court, and (r) unusual types of homicide.

The success of both institutes is largely due to the cooperative efforts of the participating agencies and the individuals who represented these agencies. Throughout both institutes the instructors emphasized two main themes, teamwork and *professional service*. As a member of the law enforcement team, each agency must play its own position and not that of another. We are apt to experience difficulties when we try to engage in activities which are the responsibility of other members of the team. We can best serve the public in our effort to eliminate crime by doing all that we can to improve ourselves in our own station, by cooperating fully with other members of the team, and by doing all that we are able to develop mutual trust and confidence in each other. Criminals do not recognize geographical boundary lines, and, in order to present a united effort against criminal activity, we must develop the cooperative spirit to the highest degree. This is enhanced through the mutual development and improvement of effective processes and procedures by instruction such as that presented in the institutes. Another advantage of this type of training is that it facilitates informal coordination between the various agencies as the participants have the opportunity to become personally acquainted with each other and share their knowledge towards the solution of interrelated problems.

As law enforcement officers, we must remember that anything we do in either our public or private lives must be to advance the honor and dignity of the profession. Dignity and respect are qualities which must be earned. We must constantly strive to broaden our field of knowledge.

The Department of Police Science and Administration at Los Angeles State College is expanding its program of institutes to assist law enforcement agencies and their personnel to increase their competence and skill. An institute on narcotics was recently completed, and institutes on police supervision, auto theft, and burglary are being planned for in the near future. ★★★

I A A I
International Association of Arson Investigators

Recognition, Collection and Preservation of Evidence In Arson Cases

By Glenroy M. Walker

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This is the second in a series of two articles by Captain Walker on the important subject of evidence recognition, its collection and preservation in arson cases. The first article appeared in the preceding issue of POLICE.*

Real evidence has been previously described as being evidence that speaks for itself. This is true, but it must be remembered that in identifying and qualifying real evidence in court the investigator must speak along with it. It is common in arson cases for the real or physical evidence to be somewhat limited in amount except for that represented by the always important records, photographs, diagrams or drawings that appear to be a standard and recognized necessary part of every arson case. It is, therefore, important that such real evidence as may be available be obtained and handled in such fashion as to render it invulnerable and secure from destruction or loss of value upon examination and review in court.

Evidence seized from places other than the fire scene must be acquired under conditions and in accordance with evidentiary rules that apply to all criminal cases. In most courts it has been held that evidence seized from the fire scene and vicinity is legal, particularly if the scene and area have been under the control and observation of the authorities during and after the fire, and until the evidence has been obtained. Evidence seized from a fire scene that has been left unguarded and available to trespass or tampering may or may not be acceptable—depending on circumstances and the court. Although the more favorable condition is obvious here, it still is the investigator's job under either condition to obtain all the evidence he possibly can.

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Evidence seized must be associated and related to the crime to be effective. The investigator must be clear in his own mind as to what the evidence is supposed to contribute toward the proof and arrange for its proper place in the overall case; otherwise the whole important meaning and inference hoped for from the evidence may be lost in the court proceedings and an important point or even whole element of proof badly shaken. There are recommended procedures and plannings for the investigator to observe and be prepared for in collecting real evidence, particularly that obtained at the scene. Here the investigator must maintain close supervision and control of any search and processing. It is usual for the investigator to have some idea in mind as to what he is looking for and its approximate location. Aimless and speculative search of the scene without some planning based on consideration of information developed from persons interviewed and other sources will seldom yield fully satisfactory results.

It is important for a determination to be made as to whether or not the scene has been tampered with or altered before proceeding so as to adjust accordingly. If other officials or persons have seized or taken items of evidence, immediate steps must be taken to trace its history and assure its security and preservation. It should be standard procedure to make drawings, diagrams and take photographs of the scene—and photographs of evidence items discovered as processing of the scene develops. Also, notes should be made at the scene of information relating to and important to the evidence. Good identification and qualification of such evidence depends on faithfully adhering to these practices.

Basic tools, equipment and materials necessary for searching a fire scene and securing evidence should be arranged for and acquired as preplanning and not some-

thing that must be attended to during the active stages of the investigation. Every arson investigator should carry in his car appropriate work clothing, boots and gloves. It is preferred that these articles be such that they can be donned over the usual clothing worn. The following tools are recommended to be carried in the trunk of the investigator's car: short handled shovel, rake and broom, axe, flashlight, whisk broom, a garden trowel and a large mixing spoon. These are very handy tools and store easily in the trunk of the car. From time to time, there may be need for other tools and equipment, but these materials will serve the majority of needs.

The wherewithal with which to package and retain evidence items and specimens will be a problem to the investigator who has not prepared himself ahead of time. By keeping the following list of materials in his car at all time, he will be able to cope with most any situation that will present itself in this respect:

1. Four wide mouth one-gallon glass jars in cardboard carton.
2. Four two-quart and four one-quart glass jars in cardboard carton.
3. Several plastic and several paper bags.
4. A sheet-sized piece of plastic or oilcloth.
5. A number of ordinary plain envelopes and a few sheets of plain writing paper.
6. One or more cardboard cartons and a few real small cardboard boxes.
7. A quantity of twine or cord.
8. A roll of scotch tape.
9. A supply of sticker type and tag type identification labels.

In gathering evidence it is important to get all of the specimen available; and if there is an excess over that required, it is wise to obtain more than the minimum needed. If specimens are to be processed by a laboratory, they often sustain a complete change of appearance and lose identity and effect. In such instances a sufficient additional amount should be collected to permit the jury to obtain full benefits of any color, odor or physical appearance of an original and unprocessed specimen sample.

Each item and specimen of evidence must be placed in separate, distinct containers, especially if different in substance or if collected from different locations. This is important as any founded suspicion or possibility of contamination, change or alteration due to mingling or contact will strongly affect the court and jury attitude. In some instances this will necessitate cleaning hands and tools after one phase and before starting the next. Evidence items that are too large for wrapping or packaging, or things not needed to be wrapped or packaged, must also receive care and handling the will prevent their change, alteration or damage.

The investigator must be very exacting in his providing absolute security to evidence items and specimens. He must be able to account for them from the time of their discovery until their presence in the court room. He must be able to assure that at no time were they available to other persons; therefore, evidence must be kept in immediate possession, under lock and key; and if turned over to another such as a property and evidence custodian or laboratory, the continuity and propriety of possession must be maintained by markings, receipts and documents. Any hesitancy or vagueness on the part of the prosecution in tracing the history of, or establishing the security of evidence from the trial back to and including the fire scene will seriously affect its weight and may even result in its being ruled inadmissible.

Whenever evidence is being prepared for preservation, two things must be borne in mind:

1. The method used should protect it from damage and and alternation and provide ease of handling; and
2. Be marked and/or labeled for identification.

Small and particle type specimens can be placed in appropriate envelopes or small boxes. Where such specimens require preservation of damp or liquid qualities, a plastic bag or small jar may be used. As size or quantity of specimens increase, these practices will adapt with little variation. It must be emphasized here that specimens subject to deterioration, evaporation or contamination must be sealed and protected against such occurrences. Large items and some smaller type evidence items not considered perishable should be closely checked and evaluated for need of wrapping, packaging or other protective measures necessary to assure their complete physical preservation.

Each item and separately wrapped or packaged specimen must be tagged or labeled for identification, and such identification should be made at the scene as the evidence is acquired. Such information as case number, specimen number, name of officer(s), date, time, place of discovery and description of evidence should be included on the tag or label. A standardized form label or tag is recommended, but envelopes or other similar containers may have the information written on them without benefit of tag or label if necessary. There is always a possible benefit achieved if initials and identifying marks can be scratched or impressed on a specimen or its container in addition to the tag or label; however, care must be exercised to not damage or alter the evidence in so doing.

The collection and preservation of real evidence as described above is not always clean work and is a duty that takes considerably of the time the investigator sometimes feels should be devoted to other phases of the investigation. However, thoroughness and exactness here is a must, for in an arson case *all evidence* is much needed evidence—without sufficient evidence, there is lack of proof—and without proof, there is no arson case! ★★★

THE WHOLE TRUTH . . .

Judge pounded his gavel for court to come to order, then turned to woman in witness box. "Witness will state her age," he ordered, "after which she will be sworn in."

Police Executive Development Courses

By Lieutenant Vincent A. Carlin

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Lieutenant Carlin has been a member of the New York City Police Department for eighteen years. During this time, he has been successively a patrolman, a detective, a patrol supervisor and an instructor at the Police Academy. As a patrolman, going to school on off time, he received his law degree, cum laude, from Brooklyn Law School and passed the New York State Bar. Previously, he had received an A.B. degree from Fordham University. Lieutenant Carlin is also a member of the Academy of Police Scientists and Administrators, which he helped to found.*

At the Police Academy, he is listed as a Lecturer, Police Science, of the City College of New York, since he has taught college courses in the Police Science Program conducted by the Police Academy in cooperation with City College. At present, Lieutenant Carlin conducts the Executive Development Course of the Police Department for the ranks of Captain and above and is legal officer of the Police Academy.

TEN or fifteen years ago, training courses for executives were relatively unknown. Training was for neophytes, not for men who had reached a "pinnacle" of success. But, influences stemming from the late wars began to wither the facade isolating executives from the need for further education.

Private industry became suddenly aware of its executive replacement problem and the pressing necessity for discovering and developing executive potential. Not only this, but the task of managing huge organizations became increasingly complex. Problems, not alone technological, unknown some years back, demanded quick and correct solutions. The rapidly developing social sciences provided new tools for evaluating methods and personnel. These new tools required an understanding of the basic purposes and, most of all, an accurate appraisal of the results that might be expected from their use.

Overspecialization and a tendency toward bureaucracy, a characteristic of large size, threatened to rob these organizations of their vitality. These reasons provided some of the motivation for industry, some public administrative agencies and the military in their attempts to improve the calibre of the men who were expected to make decisions for their organizations.

Police departments suffer from the same disabilities. Industries fail because, at the helm, acting as executives, but without real capacity, are men whose cumulative decisions spell disaster. The same charge has been voiced against some police administrators. Corruption in the ranks, inefficiency, disaffection, all the well-publicized ills of law enforcement agencies have been attributed mainly to poor police administration.

Because of lack of preparation for administrative work, and, perhaps, lack of aptitude for management, a competent police technician may, by virtue of the rigidities of Civil Service promotion, be placed in the untenable position of trying to be an administrator. Since he has not the time, and, it may be, the capacity to become an able administrator, he evolves into a timid, inferior executive detrimental to the police service. The police department has lost a good policeman and gained, unfortunately, a poor manager.

Two objections to executive development courses for police are made. By those inside a department—such training is certainly not necessary for men who have progressed up to top spots after years of experience. By those outside – a man trained to be a narrow specialist, a thorough-going technician, cannot have the broadness of view to be an administrator and therefore administrative jobs in a police department should be filled from outside a police department.

Both sides present persuasive arguments. It is difficult for police specialists, accustomed for years to looking at bits and pieces of the entire objective to finally leave this concentration for a broader view. However, in police departments, there is a wealth of untapped talent including potential administrative ability that needs only a sharpening and refining to flower into full bloom.

Granted this potential, the New York City Police Department has realized the necessity for training programs targeted toward its development. Outside resources in administrative training as well as those inside the department have been utilized. Selected personnel have been sent to the F.B.I. National Academy, the Northwestern Traffic Institute, The Southern Police Institute and various other institutes and seminars in colleges and universities throughout the country.

Locally, courses in various phases of administration, given by the Department of Personnel of the City of New York and by the National Conference of Christians and Jews, have been attended by scores of high ranking police personnel.

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Within the department, ten day courses for Sergeant eligibles have been employed to provide initial stimulation in supervisory and administrative areas. Career Development lectures have been conducted continuously for preparation for progression from rank to rank. In addition, an entire week of command training, aimed at increasing executive and administrative skills has been deemed mandatory for all officers from the rank of Deputy Chief Inspector down to Sergeant.

An outgrowth of these command conferences is in the Executive Development Course specifically designed for the ranks of Captain and above. This course is in its fourth semester at this writing. It had its inception September 16, 1957. As now scheduled, it runs for fifteen weeks, two sessions a week, three hours a session. Participants, limited to forty persons a semester, twenty to a session, attend this course on their own time. Quarters for the course were made available at the Institute of Public Administration, 684 Park Avenue, New York City, through the courtesy of its president, Dr. Luther Gulick.

One hundred sixteen officers of the rank of Captain and above have participated in this course. This figure includes two Assistant Chief Inspectors, (one of whom is now Director of the Newark Police Department); ten Deputy Chief Inspectors; thirty-two Inspectors; thirty-one Deputy Inspectors and forty-one Captains. At present there are over one hundred applications on file for later processing.

This course is conducted as a series of conferences. Trainees in executive development are mature men. Much of what they must learn about management, they learn from each other or from within themselves. The training course should be only a stimulant, that seeks to provide two things:

1. Counsel — or interpretation — someone to try to interpret present thinking and research on current organization planning and administration processes. Stereotyped notions about efficiency should be related to the realities of the police situation.

2. A Gadfly—Someone who is persistent in trying to move the participants to make improvements in their procedures, their processes and in themselves.

This thesis, then, calls for structuring the training in such a way as to provide as many opportunities as possible for informal discussion. Materials as well as methods must be tailored to the maturity and practical experience of the trainee.

Since executive development depends on the free exchange of ideas among the trainees and, in addition, seeks to provide for the growth of the individual, the composition of the training group is of some importance. A basic consideration is that the group should be varied enough to bring a wide spectrum of viewpoints and experiences to bear on police managerial problems. Ideally, administrators from different operations, i.e. detectives, traffic, patrol, headquarters and from various locations within the department should participate.

This consideration does not extend to hierarchy or status level. Homogeneity may be better here. For example, the New York City police executive development course is available to Captains and above. It is felt that thereby communication is facilitated and common managerial problems are more readily identified. It has seemed too, that there is a value in having sessions directed by some academicians and theoreticians. Besides the interchange of ideas and information, a degree of ego-deflation is encountered by both sides.

Arguments as to the length and location of executive development courses are persuasive on two sides. On the one hand, it is contended, a great deal can be accomplished on a long week-end if personalities are stimulating and the place is remote from the job and congenial. On the other, it is said, that twelve or more weeks are hardly enough if results of lasting and measurable importance are to be achieved. Probably, the answer lies in what is hoped to be accomplished.

If the objective is to impart specific ideas or knowledge, then a few hours might suffice. If, however, the aim is to change a man's outlook, his motivation,—twelve weeks could be a short time, no matter how favorable the circumstances.

Most executive development programs permit officials to get away from their own outfits and to secure a fresh point of view by associating with men of different outlooks and experience. To have such a program within the confines of a job tends to inhibit ideas especially if the discipline in the occupation is rigid. However, few men in police departments are favorable to the thought of mixing with people from outside the law enforcement field.

Ideally, again, the curriculum of an executive development course should be arranged to produce a unified, fully integrated result—an enthusiasm for the activity known as administration in a way that will enable a man to provide his own stimulus to self-improvement.

Concretely, a man should learn all about the administrative process and all about the main issues of policy that he will have to meet when he reaches the top ranks of management. He must learn to relate these two bodies of knowledge and to realize that they grow out of a single administrative situation.

However, the realities of the learning exigencies confronting the director of such a course may dictate other criteria. It may be important to stimulate the participant to think about certain basic concepts as applied to himself. Memorization may have to give way to *realization* of concepts. Therefore, it may be necessary to combine as far as possible motivation techniques and specific occupational situations to which administrative technique can be applied. In other words, process and technique and

moral philosophy and wisdom may have to be wedded to each other. A formidable liaison.

Necessarily, the conference may have to give way to lecture when extensive information must be imparted. But our beginning sessions are wholly conference. In these sessions an attempt is made to *realize* concepts of leadership and morale. In this part of the course, the emphasis is on establishing a climate of "permissiveness," in which the participants will feel free to discuss any problem and voice any opinion. This climate is necessary in order to stimulate participation by all and induce a flow of ideas.

Following this is a consideration of the "principles" of administration as developed in the areas of business and public administration. Police department problems are analyzed in the light of these "principles." This analysis includes experimentation in the integration of police procedures with these "principles."

Also considered are theories of creative thinking or "brainstorming," scientific decision-making and operation research. Budgeting principles, including performance budgeting, are explored with particular reference to police departments. Techniques of work improvement specifically adapted to police work are discussed as well as new ideas in the compiling and use of police statistics. A full session is given over to the exploration of the role of psychiatry and psychology in the law enforcement area together with necessary implications arising from this role. In community relations, the part played by commanding officers is thoroughly studied, with the various attitudes demanded by the rank of a commanding officer evaluated.

Executive development programs may not do much about alertness of mind, a sound personality, basic nervous and physical energy—all of which may be important attributes of an administrator. But attitudes may be modified or improved; discretion may be refined and sharpened; fundamental values may be enhanced.

Participants put into practice learned techniques of conference leadership by leading conferences. Later, students apply administrative techniques and principles to police situations by conducting conferences on subjects covered in the course.

The attempt in the course is to teach men about the purposes, strategy, tactics and methods of a police organization. But, it also tries to widen the perspective of the administrator, and, by this, to broaden the scope with which he draws his plans.

No other occupation, perhaps, makes such arduous spiritual, mental and physical demands upon an individual as the police profession. In business or industry, the measure of success of an administration is obvious. The business survives.

In the police field, the measure of administrative *failure* would be chaos. It could mean the destruction of a pattern of living as we know it. As a result, the moral complications of the executive function in the police area can be endured only by those possessing a commensurate ability. But more is needed than ability.

A necessary ability without an adequate sense of responsibility may lead to what has been described as "incompetence." But, a requisite sense of responsibility without commensurate ability leads to fatal indecision or to emotional and impulsive decisions. Where possible, these men attempt to be rigid perfectionists, to "go by the book." Where this is not possible, indecision leads to personal breakdown or ultimate destruction of their sense of responsibility.

A further purpose of executive development courses could be to seek to develop a shield of competence for those who may have found administrative responsibilities too much to sustain. But, more than anything, executive development courses seek to discover and increase leadership potential in police personnel. In organizations, especially where competent, scientific standards are not readily discernible, there is a waste of human activity because it is unevaluated, unrelated to objectives. As a consequence, human energies are misdirected, human genius dissipated. Police departments, along with other vast organizations can no longer afford this loss.

Executive training courses are part of the future of training in police departments. The potentialities are limitless because of the dynamic aspect of the police function in a democracy and in a world of stress. Much research will have to be done before an adequate basis exists for "conclusions." This means more empirical investigation of those personal, intellectual, and experiential qualities which make for a good or bad police administration, and of what regimen, educational or otherwise, produces and strengthens the favorable factors.

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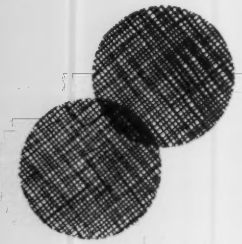

Negro Crime and the Negro Press

By Elliott M. Rudwick

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. Rudwick studied criminology under Professors Negley K. Teeters (co-author with Harry Elmer Barnes of the well-known text, NEW HORIZONS IN CRIMINOLOGY) at Temple University and Thorsten Sellin, another outstanding author in the field, at the University of Pennsylvania, where he received the Ph.D., degree. He taught at Bates College and the University of Tampa before joining Dr. Vernon Fox and the Department of Corrections at the University of Florida. Professor Rudwick is now Associate Professor of Sociology at Southern Illinois Univ. (East St. Louis, Ill., Residence Center).*

NEGROES constitute one-tenth of the American population but account for twenty five to thirty percent of the arrest rate. This high arrest rate, serious in its consequences to both Negroes and whites, demands careful objective attention on the part of the public. But in a climate of interracial tension and rapid social change, objectivity is not desired by many and is achieved by only a few. Bigots point to the large number of arrests as illustrating that the Negro is a criminal, inferior race. Friends of the colored people are reluctant to say much about the subject since they do not want to hurt the Negroes' feelings or provide any ammunition for the bigots. Northern politicians are reluctant to discuss the problem publicly because of fears that they will be misunderstood and criticized by the colored electorate. *Time Magazine* recently charged that politicians have "hidden" and "suppressed" the high Negro crime figures. According to this weekly newsmagazine (hardly known for race-baiting), "In many cities, Negro leaders and organizations such as the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People put pressure on politicians, city officials and newspapers to play down the subject. Fearing loss of Negro votes, few elected officials dare to resist the pressures."[1]

It should be obvious that a high Negro arrest rate reenforces many whites in their discrimination and prejudices against colored people. Consequently, it is the responsibility of Negro leaders "to institute stronger internal controls" within their communities. Spearheading this movement should be the editors and publishers of the nearly two hundred Negro newspapers. These weeklies reflect and mold colored opinion and comprise a powerful agency for racial unity.[2]

The importance of the Negro press for the formation of Negro opinion, for the functioning of all other Negro institutions, for Negro leadership and concerted action generally, is enormous. The Negro press is an educational agency and a power agency. Together with the church and the school—and in the field of interracial and civic opinions more than those two institutions—it determines the special direction of the process through which the Negroes are becoming acculturated.

Historically, these newspapers have fulfilled an important function in Negro life. They have fought for race welfare and equality of status. They have demanded that Negroes be treated as men and receive privileges and responsibilities of citizenship. They have exhorted readers to work steadily, save money, and buy homes. Yet the Negro editors, who possess so much power over colored public opinion, have devoted little time and effort to lessening the increasing criminality rates.

On the contrary, the typical Negro journalist contends that police officers apprehend many Negroes without basis and that this practice inflates "crime rates." According to Charles Wartman, executive editor of the *Michigan Chronicle*, "The number of Negroes booked is at least partially indicative of subconscious if not conscious racial persecution on the part of police officers."[3] A high ranking law enforcement officer in Philadelphia has provided another illustration of a Negro newsman's distrust of police as well as the proclivity to rationalize high crime rates:[4]

"There was a reporter from the Negro newspaper in here not long ago. I told him I had been looking at the cards in City Hall for holdups—including carrying a gun or deadly weapon. The inspector and I counted the cards—the white cards were for whites and the blue cards for Negroes—seventy-three percent of the cards were blue. Know what the reporter said? 'How come you got two different colored cards?' Imagine that. I told him it made filing and identification easier, but he said it looked like discrimination."

Negro reporters are simply unrealistic in failing to recognize the justification for the law enforcement agency's use of racial designations. As Chief W. H. Parker of Los Angeles has said, "Identification is a police tool not a police attitude."[5]

Sometimes Negro leaders charge that too many police officers are deployed to colored neighborhoods. According to this complaint, the sight of so many patrolmen harasses residents and seems like persecution. But police field forces are assigned on the basis of need—as indicated by crime statistics. Paradoxically, Negro newsmen also accuse police

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of too little activity. Journalists argue that law enforcement officers often ignore Negro law violations (dealing with sex, drinking, and gambling) on the assumption that this sort of conduct is characteristic of colored people. (This last objection would seem to contradict the assertion that police inflate the Negro crime statistics.)

Much of the lack of understanding which exists between the Negro press and the police actually centers around the accusation that law enforcement officers use violence illegally. Certainly there *is* some evidence that the latter group justifies brutal methods on occasion. Not a few patrolmen believe that Negroes "will respond only to fear and rough treatment." In Professor William Kephart's Philadelphia study, he reported that officers with racial prejudices were likely to be more severe in apprehending Negro suspects. White police who were "more strict" tend "to be the kind of patrolmen who object to riding with Negro partners, who object to taking orders from a qualified Negro commander, who believe that there are too many Negroes on the force, or who prefer not to have Negroes assigned to their district."[6] Clearly, these white officers are prejudiced against Negro patrolmen as well as Negro offenders.

Obviously, the illegal use of violence by the police is unjustifiable and indefensible and should be rooted out by administrative action. Able police administrators do protect all citizens against brutality at the hands of irresponsible law enforcement officers. For example, a few years ago, in response to unsatisfactory public relations, Cincinnati's Chief Stanley Schrotel issued a "Use of Force" directive.[7] Under this order, persons who are struck by police are taken to the station house (with any witnesses) and examined as soon as possible. A report is sent to headquarters and a copy filed in the officer's service record. Upon determination of the facts, appropriate action is promptly taken. The patrolman may be exonerated. Or perhaps his hostilities are uncontrollable and he has used excessive force more than once. Possibly retraining proved useless and in such a case, separation from the force would be indicated. Whatever the decision, the full details of the case are investigated and are available to inquiring journalists.

Getting ready to meet the "deadline." Photo courtesy of Robert S. Abbott, Publishing Company.

Chief W. H. Parker of the Los Angeles Police Department has also established a policy of giving newspapers "exact and complete facts" in all cases involving alleged illegal police violence.[8] Such administrative assurances go a long way toward preventing police brutality and in gaining the cooperation of Negro editors. The department is less likely to accuse the newsmen of "exaggeration," "distortion," and "invention," and the journalists, once in possession of the complete facts, are not likely to side with colored suspects who really do resist arrest.

These limited successes indicate that the Negro newspapers can be responsive to intelligent and honest police overtures to remove the barriers which prevent closer understanding. In a similar manner, the editors can be approached to help reduce Negro criminality. But such an effort must understand something of the background of the Negro press. We must remember that the editors, in rationalizing the high Negro crime rates, have employed the psychological mechanism of overcompensation. They have reacted in an extreme manner to the white press, which in the past ignored Negroes except to report crime stories (often as illustrations of inherent racial deficiencies). In their turn, the Negro editors assigned themselves the task of building up racial self respect and protesting against the status of inferiority. Since white journalists emphaized Negro crime, the colored editors have concealed it. Since white editors paid little attention to Negro achievement, the Negro editors have overpraised it.[9]

There are two ways of looking at such overcompensation; one is to say superficially that its fundamental cause is the white man's treatment of the Negro; but it is far more important to the Negro people and to the goals they hope to achieve that the men who write for the Negro press try to rise to a larger point of view than the eye for an eye philosophy.

The Negro editors can achieve the "larger point of view" if responsible white community leaders recognize basic causes of colored crimi-

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nality. According to some American sociologists, the problem is explainable in terms of the caste status and racial discrimination. Negroes have been blocked from attaining social opportunities and have thereby found it difficult to identify themselves with law-abiding American values. Herbert Bloch and Frank Flynn (authors of a recent textbook on juvenile delinquency) have stated, *"Since crime and delinquency rates appear to be a function of cultural rejection, any barriers we place in the way of assimilation will tend to induce a continuing and increasing rate."*[10] In other words, many Negroes, lacking a stake in conformity, have rebelled because they find themselves judged not in terms of individual capacities, but rather in relation to a label of racial inferiority. Consequently, the Negro crime rate may be expected to remain high until Northern whites (and others who live in large American cities) combat discrimination in their areas "with the same fervor they show in arguing for civil rights in the South."

With the causes of Negro crime placed in its proper perspective, the colored newspaper editors might be less defensive and systematically publish comparative crime rates. And they might arouse the Negro community (with the aid of race leaders in politics, education, religion, and labor) to demand that governmental officials support multi-faceted crime prevention and control programs.

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New Police Books Published in 1960

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New York City Police Stiffen Requirements

By Stephen P. Kennedy

Turn-Over in Personnel Costly

In a move which may set the example for other Police Departments throughout the country, Police Commissioner Stephen P. Kennedy called on the Department of Personnel today to institute "greatly needed" reforms in the selection of police candidates. He called for improved physical, medical and mental standards for policemen in order to increase police protection and to halt the waste of tax dollars caused by training men who ultimately fail to meet Police Academy and Police Department standards.

The Police Commissioner requested immediate promulgation of a new patrolmen's eligible list, which would automatically terminate the current list. About 477 names are on the list and it was estimated that half that number would fail the medical examinations. It was also estimated that about 100 others would fail the course at the Police Academy but would still have to be maintained for nine months until the end of their probationary period. The cost of training a police recruit for nine months—including his salary—is $6,000. The failure of 100 men would mean a loss to the city of $600,000.

In a letter to Dr. Theodore H. Lang, Acting Director of the Department of Personnel, the Police Commissioner stated: In view of the high costs to the taxpayers of paying and training probationary patrolmen, I cannot in good conscience appoint men from the remaining number on the present list, since all available evidence indicates that a large percentage of them will not successfully complete the Police Academy course."

The Commissioner reminded Dr. Lang that he had previously requested that the rules of the Civil Service Commission be amended to permit the department to summarily dismiss a probationary patrolman at the end of four months service if he had a poor performance record in the Academy. The Commissioner stated that "Since the Commission has not yet granted this request which would have alleviated a most pressing problem, I hereby formally request the immediate promulgation of a new patrolman's eligible list."

The Police Commissioner pointed out that experience has indicated a positive relationship between performance on the Department of Personnel entrance examination and academic achievement at the Academy. He said that the records of the present class indicate an unprecedented number of failures and that "it is reasonable to assume on the basis of this known relationship that the appointment of eligibles who have scored even less successfully on the entrance examinations would result in an even greater number of failures."

He pointed out that under the present rules of the Civil Service Commission Probationary Patrolmen who fail to attain the minimum passing grade at the Police Academy and are therefore considered unfit and incompetent to perform police work cannot be summarily dismissed and must be carried on the roles of the department and the city until the expiration of the probationary period at the end of nine months. "Each failure" he said, "represents a lost investment of nearly $6,000, consisting of salary paid to the patrolman and the cost of training provided by this department." He added, "This is a waste of the taxpayers' funds which cannot be overlooked nor countenanced." He stated that in addition a great personal loss is suffered by each dismissed probationary patrolman which is increased by every month he "wastes" learning a profession which he is unqualified to pursue. He said, "Much as I regret the disappointment that this will cause in certain individual cases, the primary responsibility of this department is to the people of this city. We cannot allow our sympathy for some of the present eligibles to overlook the right of the community to full and proper police protection. The fact that a man has passed civil service examinations and is placed on an eligible list doesn't confer upon him a vested right to be appointed a patrolman."

The present list still bears 829 names but a request for certification would produce only about 477. The balance of the candidates have been eliminated for one reason or another by the Department of Personnel. Out of the 477 names, experience shows that a large percentage fail to appear for medical examination, while others fail such examinations as well as character investigations. This would bring the original figure down to about 240 candidates and it was estimated—in view of the record of the current class—that a great percentage would fail the Police Academy course.

In calling for greater changes in the medical and physical standards for patrolmen, the Commissioner requested permission to disqualify candidates with a prior history of nervous conditions, similar to those with a history of alcoholism, peptic ulcers or back conditions. ★★★

Photo on the right shows the graduates of the September-October Keeler Institute. These eight men are the graduates of a starting class of fifteen.

Standing, left to right: Calvin C. Bennington, State Police, Richmond, Virginia; John E. Peters, Dept. of Police, Bellingham, Washington; Leon Dishlacoff, Police Dept., Denver, Colorado; John W. Cole, Sheriff's Dept., Lockport, New York.

Seated, left to right: Donald E. Knox, Jr., Police Dept., Des Moines, Iowa; Harry E. Robinson, State Police, Charleston, West Virginia; Leonard T. Zorn, Sheriff's Dept., Green Bay, Wisconsin; Chester A. Inskeep, Police Dept., Portland, Oregon.

Project Demonstrates Results of Better Probation

"We were sleeping on dynamite," writes John B. Martin, Chairman of the Michigan Crime and Delinquency Council, a committee of the National Council on Crime and Delinquency. "Our peaceful sleep, however, was not destined to remain long undisturbed. In the spring of 1952, the tragic riot at Jackson Prison . . . burst upon us (and) our apathy and our lack of informed and enlightened support cost us, as citizens and taxpayers, damages at the prison of about 2 1/2 million dollars. It was then that our public officials and citizens showed their concern to insure that such a devastating explosion would not occur again."

In his article, "The Saginaw Project," in the October issue of *Crime and Delinquency*, NCCD's quarterly Mr. Martin tells how a group of citizens improved Michigan's correctional activities.

"Our Michigan Crime and Delinquency Council was organized by NCCD late in 1955 and has pushed forward in adult probation and parole and child protective services. We have worked with the Department of Corrections to expand probation and parole staffs and to encourage the application of sound and tested techniques." For example, he says, the average probation or parole caseload in Michigan today is far smaller than it was eight years ago, when it was too unwieldy to afford even minimum supervision of the offender.

"Early in 1956," Mr. Martin continues, "we decided that the best proof of the extent to which Michigan could benefit from more intensive probation techniques would be a demonstration project in which such techniques were used under controlled conditions . . . The project itself was an act of faith in the possibility, through the better use of probation, of saving men, families, and money without endangering society."

The article tells about the 50 per cent reduction in prison commitments during the three-year Saginaw project as a result of bringing the probation department up to standard. The improved operation also produced a 47 per cent decrease in the number of probationers committed to prison for violation of probation.

"I believe," Mr. Martin concludes, "on the basis of our experience in Saginaw and the cost of our correctional program, that statewide application of intensive probation and parole procedures similar to those used in Saginaw would result in stabilizing our prison population and would effect savings to the taxpayer of $8,000,000 to $9,000,000 annually. This takes into account savings from decreased capital outlay as well as from decreased expenditures for families deprived of their principal breadwinner. It would involve substantial additions to both probation and parole staffs, but these would be more than offset by the decreased cost of new prison construction. ★★★

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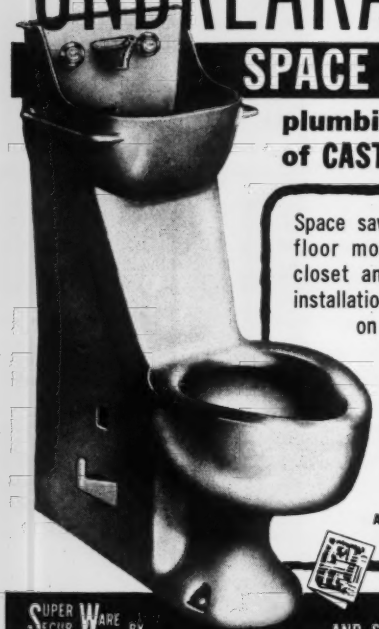
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Research Projects

California Highway Patrol
Research and Development Section

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This is the sixth in a series of seven reports covering planning and research projects completed or in progress in a number of American Police Departments. The first report appeared in the July-August issue of POLICE.*

GENERAL RESEARCH

(Exploration of new development affecting future Departmental programs.)

Police Supervisors Span of Control Formula.
Law Enforcement Mutual Aid Program.
Command Efficiency Formula.
Chemical Tests for Drugs.
Rate of Increase Assignment Formula.
Accident Report Form.
"Alcotest" Evaluation.
Employees' Special Abilities Evaluation.
Release of Accident Information.
Transportation of Explosives.
Right of Way Enforcement.
Drinking Driver Enforcement.
Commercial Vehicle Enforcement.
Main Line Beat vs. Beat and Area Patrol.
Plastic Compartment Dividers.
Use of Tachographs in Patrol Vehicles.
Time Distribution—Police Supervisors.
Had Been Drinking Driver Accidents.
Horsepower, Excessive Speed in Accidents.
Medical Aspects of Accident Involvement.
Freeway Enforcement Personnel Assignment Formula.
Safety Belt Effect in Accidents.
Use of Aircraft in Enforcement.
Handling Downed Aircraft.
Teen-age Drivers in Traffic Accidents.

LEGAL RESEARCH

(Definition and interpretation of case and statutory law in its application to Departmental operation.)

Excessive Smoke Enforcement.
Obtaining Body Fluids by Force.
Law Suits Against Members or Employees.
Reduction or Compromising of Charges.
Stopping Vehicles Without Reasonable Cause.
Legal Width of Vehicles.
Definition—Tanks and Trucks.
Release of Store Vehicles.
Foreign Vehicle Registration.
Authority to Close Highways.
Police Authority—National Parks.
Definition—Driver in Physical Control of Vehicle.
Status—Diplomatic Immunity.
Effect of Duces Tecum on Keeper of Records.
Legality of Prima Facie Speed Limit Charge.

ADMINISTRATIVE PROCEDURES RESEARCH

(Analysis of methods and procedures for the purpose of policy determination.)

Personnel Assignment.
Duty Hours for Patrol Personnel.
Drivers License Information Code.
Deployment Control Report.
Organization Study.
Daily Activity Report Procedures.
Development—Standard Beat Descriptions.
Radio Operating Procedures.
Emergency and Disaster Plan.
Personnel Transfer Policy.
Accident Investigation Policy.
Photo Development and Printing Policy.
Departmental Recruitment Procedures.

The foregoing list is not complete, but is intended only to indicate the various types of research in which the Section engages. In addition, constant statistical examination is conducted of all aspects of Departmental responsibilities. Daily, weekly, monthly and annual summaries of these findings are transmitted to the respective levels of execution.

The Journal serves as a central clearing house for information concerning planning and research in the American police field. Other Departments are invited to send in to the Editor reports covering planning and research projects which they have completed or have in progress.

Report of the IACP Committee on Organized Crime

By Chief Edward J. Allen

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Through the courtesy of Chief Edward F. Allen of the Police Department in Santa Ana, California, the Journal is pleased to make available to its readers throughout the country the REPORT OF THE IACP COMMITTEE ON ORGANIZED CRIME presented on October 3, 1960, before the 67th Annual Convention of the Association in Washington, D. C. In addition to Chief Allen who is Chairman of the Committee, other members are Col. William H. Morris, Superintendent of the Illinois State Highway Police, Springfield, Illinois, Vice-Chairman of the Committee; Chief Michael Fox, Police Department, Miami Beach, Florida; Chief Bernard L. Garmire, Police Department, Tucson, Arizona; Mr. Francis J. Hennessy, Superintendent of Police, Police Department, Boston, Massachusetts; Chief William F. Proetz, Police Department, St. Paul, Minnesota; Mr. Paul M. Smith, Director of the Kentucky State Police, Frankfort, Kentucky; and Mr. Harold S. Zeis, Superintendent of the Indiana State Police, Indianapolis, Indiana.*

The Report was presented by Chief Allen, Chief Garmire, Superintendent Francis S. McGarvey of the New York State Police, Albany, New York; Assistant Deputy Commissioner Charles Siragusa, U. S. Narcotics Bureau, Treasury Department, Washington, D. C.; and Attorney Milton R. Wessel, New York City, former Chief of the U. S. Attorney General's Special Group on Organized Crime.

What follows should be read with studied concern by every law enforcement officer.

For the year 1960 your Organized Crime Committee is presenting a panel discussion of the problem. Panel discussions are not of themselves new and different, but the composition of this particular panel will, we think, stimulate more widespread interest and more pertinent, provocative questions and answers. Such a lively presentation should prove informative and enlightening. There is little point in submitting papers year after year which are merely repetitious of the fact that Organized Crime is a great evil and that law enforcement must be ever alert and cooperative in order to cope with the situation. This is merely stating the obvious and actually meaningless insofar as any inroads against Organized Crime are concerned.

The fact remains that while Organized Crime progresses, law enforcement remains "unorganized" insofar as concerted action, effective policies, and planned methods to halt this progress are concerned. It is true that there are rare and salutary instances of effective and successful prosecution against the top leaders of the Mafia and Organized Crime, but there is no continuity of a program to achieve similar successes.

We specifically advert to the successful prosecution of the twenty Mafia Leaders who were convicted by the United States government in a case entitled *United States of America Versus Joseph Bonanno, et al.* (Commonly referred to as the Apalachin Case, since the meeting was held in Apalachin, New York.) This marks a major step in the fight against Organized Crime since it culminated in the successful prosecution and sentencing of a score of nationally active hoodlums. The trial, while not unique in its basic concept, was both unique and significant because of the meaningful and forthright opinion of United States District Judge Irving R. Kaufman who presided. The meticulous care taken by the prosecuting attorneys, their staffs, and their witnesses in preserving the rights of the defendants was, of course, responsible not only for the convictions, but for the precise legal procedures which made it possible, nay mandatory, for Judge Kaufman to set aside the motions of the defense to suppress the evidence upon which convictions were obtained.

The co-conspirators have appealed the case and it is always possible that the trial court decision may be reversed. We have witnessed many high court reversals which have benefitted the lawless rather than the law abiding in recent years. However, it is most important to bear in mind that whether the decision is reversed or upheld, the Apalachin case has proven that co-operative and coordinated law enforcement information and participation on local, county, state and federal bases is productive in combating crime syndicates whose criminal activities cross local, county, stated and federal boundaries. Attorney General William P. Rogers has hailed the case as "a landmark in the government's fight against Organized Crime and racketeering."

Because of the tremendous significance of this trial and the trial court's decisions and opinions, we felt that it would be in the best interests of law enforcement and the IACP to attempt to formulate a panel of law enforcement officials closely connected with the case and others whose intimate experience with and knowledge of Organized Crime is unquestioned.

We are most happy to report that

Address: Edward J. Allen, Chief of Police, Santa Ana, California.

the following officials will comprise a four-man panel who will present a two-hour program on the vital subject of Organized Crime at our 67th Convention in Washington, D. C.:

Attorney Milton R. Wessel, former Special Assistant to the United States Attorney General and Chief of the Attorney General's Special Group on Organized Crime. It was Mr. Wessel who was chief prosecutor for the government and who guided and directed the prosecution to its successful conclusion. Mr. Wessel has gained intimate knowledge and experience through his concentration on the leaders of Organized Crime and we are most grateful that he accepted our invitation to appear on our panel—incidentally, at his own expense. Mr. Wessel will set forth the reasons behind the recommendation that a federal prosecution team of lawyers and investigators be created with the primary functions of:

(1) Collecting from law enforcement agencies and putting together the organized crime picture to develop prosecutions against top syndicate leaders.

(2) Doing basic syndicate investigative work.

(3) Acting as a kind of clearing house, catalyst and communication center to permit federal, state, and local law enforcement units around the country to maintain contact with each other on Organized Crime matters.

Another member of the panel is Mr. Francis S. McGarvey, Superintendent of the New York State Police Department. Superintendent McGarvey is also closely associated with the Apalachin case since it was two of his officers, Sergeant Edgar D. Croswell and Trooper Vincent R. Vasisko who discovered the Mafia meeting at the home of Joseph Barbara, Apalachin, New York, who instigated the investigation and secured evidence that was subsequently used to convict the twenty gangsters who gathered for this crime syndicate meeting. The New York Police, under Superintendent McGarvey's direction and control have one of the outstanding Intelligence Units in law enforcement.

It is noted that the so-called Apalachin Case is properly designated "United States of America vs. Joseph Bonnano, et al." The hoodlum *Bonanno*, who has the dubious distinction of being named in the title of the case, is now a resident of Tucson, Arizona. On our committee we have the creditable distinction of having the Chief of Police of Tucson, Mr. Bernard L. Garmire. Chief Garmire has long been an effective crime fighter on the Indiana State Police, as Chief in Eau Claire, Wisconsin, as well as in his present post in Tucson, and is therefore well-qualified to discourse on one of the most insidious aspects of Organized Crime, the infiltration of chronic criminals and hoodlums into legitimate business and respectable community life.

Another distinguished member of our Organized Crime Committee panel is Charles Siragusa who was promoted to Assistant Deputy Commissioner, U. S. Narcotics Bureau in the U. S. Treasury Department on June 1, 1960. Mr. Siragusa has established a unique law enforcement record in the area of Organized Crime since he became a Narcotics Agent with the U. S. Bureau of Narcotics in December 1940. In addition to his narcotics investigative experience throughout the United States, he has fulfilled foreign assignments in Puerto Rico, Turkey, Lebanon, Syria, Greece, Germany, France, and Italy, and has attended international conferences as a technical advisor with United States Delegations, the United Nations Commission on Narcotic Drugs in Geneva, Switzerland, and as a member of the U. S. Treasury Department's Delegation to meetings of the International Criminal Police Organization, Interpol, in Lisbon, Vienna, Istanbul, Rome, and Stockholm. He has appeared before numerous United States senatorial investigating committees, including Senator Kefauver's Cormie Committee and Senator McClellan's Labor Rackets Committee.

It will be seen from the intimate knowledge gained in law enforcement investigative work throughout this and many other countries that Mr. Siragusa can speak with authority with respect ot the Mafia and its connections on national and international bases.

CONCERTED ACTION ESSENTIAL

It has not been sufficient and it will not be sufficient to merely exchange verbal pledges of cooperation with respect to Organized Crime. None doubts the sincerity of such voluntary pledges, but they will become meaningful only if methods to implement them are established. We have agreement on the goal, we must achieve agreement on means to attain that goal.

Admittedly, such a course is fraught with many pitfalls, and we must begin with frankness. Most of the pitfalls stem from the distrust of certain agencies to release vital underworld information to certain other agencies. Where such distrust is merited, it would be the height of folly to divulge information only to have it passed on to the underworld itself. We must be realistic enough to admit that such things have happened and the possibility exists that they would happen again. Intelligence information therefor is secure and valuable in proportion only to the integrity of every officer who has access to such information. Human nature being what it is, law enforcement must be extremely wary of loose dissemination of this type of information.

For the past decade United States senatorial investigating committees and their staff members have advocated some kind of a permanent National Crime Commission to investigate criminal syndicates and turn

over the results to federal, state, or county district attorneys as the case may be. While such a commission has been sincerely suggested, it has always been in a nebulous manner and has not been given serious studied attention as to format, powers, responsibilities, and scope. It has likewise been seriously suggested that such a commission would have no real law enforcement or prosecutive authority, no experienced or knowledgeable police investigators, and no trial lawyers. The commission might hire such a staff, but not towards the end of prosecution itself, merely to relay information to proper authorities. In addition, the fear has been cited that the commission, in conducting hearings or investigations, might endanger civil rights.

An alternate suggestion, by the United States Attorney General's Special Group on Organized Crime, is therefore worthy of consideration. With respect to this proposal, our panel member Attorney Milton Wessel has said: "Our staff's big disappointment is that a recommendation made in our official report (U. S. Attorney General's Group on Organized Crime) has not been adopted. We advocated the creation of a permanent task force to concentrate on criminal syndicates. It would comprise about forty lawyers and seventy-five investigators . . . Strong opposition to the idea has been expressed by people who contend that crime and racketeering are primarily local problems. I submit that statistics showing steady increases in major crimes are incontestable proof that the situation is beyond the control of local police."

It might be added that since political condonation, if not connivance, go hand in hand with Organized Crime, local police officers, even police chiefs, can be hamstrung by politicians in city, county, state, and federal offices when and if they proceed "without fear or favor" against the leaders of Organized Crime in particular jurisdictions. It should be made clear that the Special Group headed by Mr. Wessel was a temporary unit and served out its allotted time with distinction. It did not recommend its own continuance but the creation of a permanent unit with similar duties and objectives.

APALACHIN CASE

There are those who would belittle the Apalachin investigation and subsequent prosecution and convictions as an "accident." Let us concede the assertion of these critics that the dicovery of this top-level Mafia meeting was a stroke of luck rather than the result of prior intelligence. Let us concede further that the evidence resulting in the wholesale conviction was supplied by the "conspirators" themselves whose foolish alibis about the meeting became the evidence making the conspiracy to obstruct justice trial possible. The fact remains, stubbornly and incontrovertibly, that without the United States Attorney General's Special Group on Organized Crime there would have been no combined coordination of information and evidence which resulted in conviction.

It is probable that such fortuitous circumstances; i.e., the accidental discovery of the crime conclave and the evidence of a conspiracy to obstruct justice will not occur again. This bears precisely on the point of intelligence information in police work. We ought to be organized so that seventy-five top leaders in Organized Crime from all sections of the country cannot surreptitiously and simultaneously meet at a certain time, place, and date without any law enforcement agency or group having the least knowledge of it. We cannot continue to depend solely on luck, or the hunches of one or two policemen to keep the overlords of the underworld from outsmarting us. It is well to state here that since the Apalachin convictions the underworld has greater fear and respect for the forces of law and order than ever before. It behooves us to continue to merit that wholesome fear and respect.

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The assumption seems logical that if such a task force can capitalize on this type of evidence and present a winning case, one should be created. Relentless, intensified pressure and investigations of criminal syndicates and their machinations will ultimately result in additional convictions, all of which will demoralize and render impotent the politically and financially powerful leaders of the Mafia. Only the superior power of the combined forces of law enforcement can overcome the tremendous power of the combined forces of the overlords of the underworld. Let the question simply be asked: If there are persuasively compelling reasons which should preclude the creation of such a law enforcement task force, what are they? It is the hope of your committee to stimulate the pros and cons of this most vital, if difficult, law enforcement problem

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and to provoke frank and forthright opinions from sincere knowledgeable and reasonable men looking toward the best possible solution. It is high time the matter is openly, thoroughly and honestly discussed; approached in the sincere desire to present a united front in the best interests of law enforcement and of the people as a whole.

Surely, there is widespread concern among all law enforcement agencies about the continuing spread and influence of Organized Crime and all recognize that we must do something more than promise to cooperate with each other. We need more than passive agreement. There must be aggressive and sustained action. In law enforcement we are accustomed to examining and investigating every proposal for advantages and disadvantages, for the possibilities of success or failure. When we witness a method and a procedure that has been uniquely successful in "bagging the Mafia"; in successfully convicting twenty of the country's organized hoodlums, in obtaining eighteen indictments in actions still pending, and providing evidence for sixty-one possible violations to the Justice and Treasury Departments and the Internal Revenue Service, all in a period of twenty-one months, it behooves us to give serious consideration to the continuation of such a law enforcement task force. ★★★

SUGGESTIONS FOR SAFER WINTER DRIVING

A University of Wisconsin research professor who has conducted winter driving tests on Wisconsin's ice and snow for the past dozen years has revealed that some winter tire advertisers occasionally "get carried away and present misleading information which is unfair to the majority of companies which stick to factual information."

He calls attention to a national safety committee resolution warning that "misleading advertising concerning non-skid properties of tires can become an indirect cause of costly traffic tie-ups and painful accidents by leading motorists into taking risks of which they are not fully aware."

He is Professor Archie H. Easton, director of the Motor Vehicle Research Laboratory at the University of Wisconsin, who points to results of comprehensive tests by the National Safety Council's Committee on Winter Driving Hazards. He is chairman of the committee and is described as the outstanding authority on "coefficients of friction as related to winter road surfaces."

Having risked his limbs and life time and again in winter test driving, Easton can tell about hundreds of test results with all types of vehicles, tire treads and chains to reduce dangers of skidding or stalling. He recommends that all snow-belt drivers, particularly those in rural communities, study the following facts:

WINTER STARTING—When it comes to starting and pulling ability on flare ice, snow tires are 28 per cent better than regular tires; regular tire chains are 231 per cent better, while reinforced tire chains are 409 per cent better. On loosely packed snow, the snow tires are 51 per cent better than regular tires, whereas reinforced tire chains provide 313 per cent better traction.

STOPPING ABILITY—On glare ice, at only 20 mph, braking distances for regular tires average 195 feet. Snow tires take 174 feet, regular tire chains 99 feet, and reinforced tire chains 77 feet. At 20 mph on loosely packed snow, regular tires stopped in 60 feet, snow tires 52 feet, regular tire chains 46 feet, and reinforced tire chains 38 feet.

BASIC CONCLUSIONS—Prof. Easton summarizes other basic conclusions from his winter driving tests, to aid drivers in 43 snow-belt states just before severe weather and road conditions set in, as follows:

1. The most hazardous winter surface condition is ice near or at the freezing temperature;

2. Braking distances on winter surfaces are 3 to 12 times as great as those on bare pavement;

3. Tires and traction devices listed in the approximate order of increasing effectiveness on winter surfaces are as follows:

A. Smooth tires—very poor, should not be used.
B. Regular tires—inadequate under many winter conditions.
C. Winterized tire (tread treatment or breakout material)—provide better traction on ice, not much improvement on snow.
D. Mud-snow modern design—provide better snow and ice traction.
E. Embedded metal coils, serpentine ribs—provide snow and ice traction.
F. Sanders — performance outstanding in traction on ice only.
G. Regular round wire tire chains —good stop-and-go performance. Side-skid resistance low compared to reinforced tire chains.
H. Reinforced tire chains—best in overall performance on both ice and snow. ★★★

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How Old Do You Have To Be?

There are cases handled at police stations which don't always get on the permanent record—except as their imprints are left in the hearts and minds of those involved.

There was one here last weekend.

It was near midnight Saturday night that a call came to the station. Six teen-age boys were on their way back to Wilson. They had played in a baseball tournament in High Point and were returning home. One of the boys was driving his father's car.

Trouble developed with the car near Fleetwood Motel, and they were stranded.

It wasn't long, however, before local officers had brought them to the station. They had no place to sleep, but officers provided the large assembly room for them above the station as a make-shift dormitory.

When the first shift reported for duty Sunday morning, the assembly room-dormitory was checked.

The boys were sleeping soundly. They were on tables, in chairs, any place they could get that was comfortable.

The officer-in-charge of the shift then learned what had happened.

He awakened the boys after officers had been checked out on their beats.

"Would you like to get some coffee?" he asked them.

They all agreed that they would.

"Would you like to have some breakfast, too?" the officer asked.

They showed they were hungry.

One of them spoke up, however.

"That would be nice, but we don't have but 38 cents between us," he said.

The officer scratched his head.

"Well, I think we might do something about that," he told them.

The boys waited as the officer went to a telephone downstairs.

He called his wife. It wasn't long before a dozen eggs were being scrambled, a pound of bacon was frying, coffee was brewing, toast was being made, and milk was being placed on the table.

The officer took the boys to his home and saw them eat. Not only did they consume all the food in record time, but they went through one and one-half jars of pear preserves.

The officer and his wife sat back and watched them.

It had been hard to find the parents. Most of them, by their sons being away, had taken a week-end trip also. Finally, however, one of the parents was found, and he quickly was on his way to Burlington. He was scheduled to arrive shortly after mid-morning.

The boys were kept entertained. They were placed in the police car and given a trip around town. The car was going to be making the trip any way, so they went along.

Shortly after 10 o'clock, the parent arrived and got the the boys started back home.

When the word got out on what had taken place, Lt. Roy Watkins was approached.

He admitted that he had enjoyed the boys' visit.

He admitted, too, that he and his wife enjoyed tremendously seeing the boys eat their breakfast.

He said, too, that when the boys said they had only 38 cents "there were many memories to come back to me."

Said Lt. Watkins:

"I went off on ball trips many times, just like these boys did. We had money when we left, but we didn't have any when we started back.

"It never dawned on us that anything would happen that we would need money, just as it didn't dawn on these boys.

"They needed some breakfast, and we had some at home for them."

Six boys are at their homes in Wilson now.

They're telling of their experience, probably.

And they undoubtedly are remembering and wondering what they would have done had not there been a Burlington Police Department and a Burlington police lieutenant, in particular, interested in them.

There were a lot of things placed on the official record of police activities for Saturday and Sunday.

But this case remains on the record in the minds of the boys, primarily, and with Lt. and Mrs. Watkins as they still enjoy the thrill they got out of seeing six boys, who didn't think they would have breakfast, eat all they wanted.

Before the boys pulled off from the station, one of them had a question he wanted answered.

"How old," he asked seriously, "do you have to be before you can become a policeman?"

. . . Courtesy James P. McGaughey, Personnel Officer, City of Burlington, N. C., and the *Burlington Daily Times-News*.

William Dienstein, Editor

Juby E. Towler; PRACTICAL POLICE KNOWLEDGE, Springfield, Thomas, 1960. 206 pp. $5.75.

Captain Towler's title for his book was well chosen. Thoroughly PRACTICAL and packed with POLICE KNOWLEDGE, this handy volume has many hints and insights into the daily routine of the working police officer.

The reader will find threaded among the object lessons and discussions some on-the-job incidents that he probably thought peculiar to his own department, and he may be interested in seeing that Captain Towler has included them. His suggestions on what the police officer should do when confronted with these situations are clear and direct.

Experienced officers will find themselves caught up in the author's genuine enthusiasm for the advancement of policing technique through practical methods and their applications, as well as a keen dedication to the service.

Though the book would seem to have suffered from thought compression by cramming so much of a broad field in a relatively short volume, the reader will find it all in there, reduced to its working form.

D. H. West
Patrol Sergeant
West Palm Beach Police Department
West Palm Beach, Florida

Malachi L. Harney and John C. Cross: THE INFORMER IN LAW ENFORCEMENT, Springfield, Thomas, 1960, 83 pp. $4.50.

As is indicated in the preface of the book, "there is little knowledgeable writing on the use and place of the informer" in modern law enforcement. Fortunately, the authors recognized the need for "knowledgeable writing" and used their vast, firsthand experience in compiling this work.

This writing is based primarily on the use of informants operating on a federal level, but bridges the gap from the Narcotic Investigator to the Foot Patrolman exceedingly well. The authors have provided information in finding, handling and using informants that is extremely valuable to the rookie patrolman and the prosecutor as well, and fills a void that has thus far been ignored. They also make available to the reader much information on how not to handle informants.

Factual cases are interspersed throughout the book and provide the reader with interesting examples of the roles informants have played in the downfall of nationally and internationally known crime figures. Perhaps the greatest being the role Abe (Kid Twist) Reles played in the Murder, Incorporated investigations during the late thirties and early forties.

The closing chapters deal with the difference in the laws concerning the use of informants in the prosecution of cases, and should be invaluable to prosecutors who normally deal in gambling and vice. These chapters clearly illustrate the important part informants have played in law enforcement's never ending battle against organized crime.

James R. Park
Detective Sergeant
West Palm Beach Police Department
West Palm Beach, Florida

Carl B. Young, Jr.: TRANSPORTATION OF THE INJURED, Springfield, Thomas, 1958. 238 pp. $6.75.

The author of this monograph is obviously well versed in the art of presenting factual information to those interested in the subject of First Aid and the transportation of injured persons. Not only does he discuss and explain the problem in detail, but most of the main points are illustrated through the use of photographs and excellent cartoons. These illustrations show both the right and wrong way of handling various emergency problems.

The acknowledgements shown indicate that Mr. Young has done a great deal of research before this book was published and that the ideas and practices to be followed are not only his alone but are those with which numerous people concur.

This volume is presented in two parts. The first dealing with people who are directly responsible for the handling of the injured, such as ambulance crews, law enforcement and fire department personnel. The second section deals with the problems and answers for the administrative heads of governments, health units, hospitals, morticians, ambulance service companies and community leaders.

In the first section the author outlines step-by-step procedures to be followed in almost all of the emergencies that one may encounter during the normal day of a policeman, from basic first aid to the most serious injuries. By the simple addition of small gummed tabs, at the appropriate pages, this book could be used for ready reference by the ambulance crews and should be kept in the ambulance at all times. By doing this even the "greenest" of crews with the absolute minimum in training could handle the injured properly.

One of the greatest problems of police officers, that of the preservation of evidence, is covered in one of the chapters. Although normally this particular subject takes many hours of instruction. Mr. Young presents it in such a manner that it is easily read and the meaning is quite clear. Following this line of thought, he also explains "Dying Declarations" in the same clear and concise manner.

The second section covers such items as training requirements for ambulance personnel, basic requirements for the ambulance vehicle and the proper equipment to be stocked in the vehicles. These items are listed in detail and the only thing an organization need do would be to contact their local medical society to obtain approval of the use of certain items for first aid care that may vary from community to community, such as the proper treatment for burns.

One complete chapter in this section deals with the safe driving of the ambulance to the emergency and back to the hospital if *proper* first aid is rendered at the scene and that in fact reckless and unnecessary speed often causes far more injury to the patient through shock. Although this chapter deals specifically with this point, this same thought is brought up time and time again and should never be forgotten by anyone who even casually reads this book.

A model ambulance ordinance is also included for those wishing to have such legislation enacted in their communities.

This volume, and its companion volume, *First Aid and Resuscitation*, by the same author, should be in the library of every police and fire department and should be required reading.

Joseph Macy, Lieutenant
Training and Inspection Division
West Palm Beach Police Department
West Palm Beach, Florida

Sir Sydney Smith: MOSTLY MURDER, David McKay Company, Inc. 119 West 40th Street, N.Y. 18, 1959, 318, pp., $4.95.

Erle Stanley Gardner in the foreword states *"Mostly Murder*, by Sir Sydney Smith, is one of the most fascinating autobiographies I have ever read."

Sir Sydney Smith, medico-legal expert and emeritus professor of forensic medicine, relates the more interesting cases from his experiences in Egypt and Great Britain.

The recounting of the several cases through the eyes of the laboratory expert serves to illustrate the "magic" of legal medicine.

They serve to emphasize the importance of evidence; evidence that may seem trivial to the uninitiated, evidence from which the medico-legal expert can ferret out most significant information; evidence without which no case could be established.

Mostly Murder will provide the layman with gripping stories of murder investigations and will remind the law enforcement officer of the value of the scientific examination of evidence.

William Dienstein, 4337 Moroa Avenue, Fresno 4, California.

M. E. Wolfgang: PATTERNS IN CRIMINAL HOMICIDE, Univ. of Penn. Press, Philadelphia, 1958, 413 pp. $8.00.

The author of this book is a sociologist. His work on homicide is an important and relatively new contribution, well worth the attention of sociologists and criminologists. Wolfgang has studied through a careful examination of the files of the Philadelphia Police Department all the "criminal homicide" cases during the five-year period, 1948-1952. He collected data on 588 victims and 621 criminals in an attempt to trace common patterns and recurrent characteristics of this type of criminal behavior.

The author is perfectly aware of the limitations of a mass statistical study undertaken without individual examination and contact with the subjects. He expresses his conviction that an optimum study would require supplementing the sociological dimension with the biological and psychological investigation. The study he presents, although unilateral, has great significance because of the methodology and the large size of the population. A statistical analysis was used to assess the significance of the data.

Although this study was not intended as a comparative investigation, the relevant bibliography is meticulously covered and data from other authors are compared with the Philadelphia findings. The wealth of data emerging from the analysis is too great to be fully discussed in a review, but many of his findings offer interesting hypotheses for other studies and are of immediate value both for criminologists and police authorities.

Prof. Franco Ferracuti, M.D., Institute of Criminal Anthropology, University of Rome, Via Ugo Balzani, 57, Rome, Italy.

Norman Jaspan with Hillel Black: *The Thief in the White Collar*, J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, 1960, 254 pp., $4.95.

In 1949 E. H. Sutherland published *White Collar Crime* based on articles which he had written in 1940 and 1941. Jaspan and Black bring the story of the thief in the white collar up to date. The authors of *The Thief in the White Collar* distinguish between the traditional offender, the ordinary thief, burglar, and robber, and the white collar criminal in the realm of violation of trust.

The white collar criminal is America's most resourceful and successful crook. He is often a college graduate of middle or upper class who rarely has financial cause to steal. His parents are respected members of the community. He violates the trust put in him by his employer, his fellow employees, and his community. Because white collar crime violates trust it creates distrust. It lowers social morale and produces social disorganization. It is subversive of the fundamental prniciples of American society.

The white collar criminal steals some one billion dollars in cash and property during the year. By comparison, the burglar, pickpocket, armed robber, and auto thief are amateurs. Their total take in 1957 was estimated at 479 million dollars. It is estimated that, in addition to the loss in cash and property, in 1960, the white collar criminal will engage in paying some five billion dollars in kickbacks, payoffs, and bribes.

The authors cite numerous cases to document their story. The result is a fascinating and disturbing book. In addition to describing how the thefts are committed, the authors suggest methods of control to reduce the losses.

This book serves a unique function: it should make us question our traditional theories of crime and criminals; it should make us less dogmatic about who are the criminals.

William Deinstein, 4337 Moroa Ave., Fresno 4, California.

Another "first" in Thomas BOOKS

THOMAS BOOKS SYMBOL OF LEADERSHIP

FINGERPRINT HANDBOOK

By

ANNITA T. FIELD

Public Information Division

Los Angeles Police Department

This text is the *most realistic approach* to the subject of fingerprinting published to date. The author has broken down into separate paragraphs all phases of procedure in the analysis and interpretation of fingerprinting. Each paragraph is clearly and specifically titled – thus eliminating time-consuming search for specific items buried in the pages of long chapters.

The application of fingerprint classification indicated adheres to *the procedure recommended by the FBI*— the recognized authority in the United States.

CONTENTS

- Fingerprint Chronology
- Fingerprint Formation
- Equipment Used in Fingerprinting
- Taking Fingerprint Impressions
- Components of Fingerprint Patterns
- Types of Patterns
- Whorl Tracing
- The Classification Formula
- Classifying a Set of Prints
- Amputated and Deformed Prints
- Searching
- The Single Fingerprint File: Battley System
- Latent Prints
- Comparison of Characteristics for Court Testimony
- Single Hand Classification and Filing

A Monograph in THE POLICE SCIENCE SERIES edited by V. A. LEONARD.

Published 1959 194 pages
$5.75 267 il.

CHARLES C THOMAS • PUBLISHER
301-327 East Lawrence Avenue
Springfield • Illinois

NEWS and ANNOUNCEMENTS

OUTSTANDING SAFE DRIVER

The above picture shows instruments used in recording data on driving in the "Telar" Safety Drive. Shown inspecting the instruments are Edward Emond, of the National Safety Council; Alex Keilen, named the Nation's safest driver; and Dr. James L. Malfetti, of Columbia University. Note: Details concerning the safety drive were reported in the previous issue of POLICE.

REFLECTIVE PLATES TESTED

A one-year test of reflective automobile license plates in Polk County, Iowa, resulted in such a sharp reduction of accidents involving parked cars at night that Public Safety Commissioner D. M. Statton said his department will recommend adoption of reflective plates for the entire state.

A study of Polk County accident figures for the year indicated reflective plates were most effective in making stalled or parked cars visible at night, so that other drivers see them in time to turn aside and avoid rear-end collisions. Reflective plates are also effective in marking the positions of cars driving with one headlight or with taillights inoperative, the report states.

About three out of five cars in Polk County were equipped with reflective plates. If these plates had no accident reducing qualities, three out of five parked cars run into at night would have had reflective plates, the study reported. Actually, only one out of five cars hit in such collisions had reflective plates, according to Commissioner Statton.

TRANSLATION MADE EASY

The Air Force is now using a new translating machine which will have unlimited possibilities in the police field. Photography, the recording medium that stores the greatest amount of information in the smallest space, is the key to success of the machine that changes Russian ot English at the rate of 40 words per minute.

Eastman Kodak Company coats special glass disks, the heart of the translating machine, with high-resolution photographic emulsion.

Previous translating machines have usually been modified computers. Their Russian-English "vocabularies" were stored on magnetic tape or punched cards. This limited both the size of the vocabulary that could be stored and the speed with which it could be searched electronically for words and phrases.

Through photography, an entire 55,000 word vocabulary is stored in a 3/8-inch channel printed on a ten-inch glass disk.

A Kodak research scientist recently disclosed that a high-resolution film, exposed with present optics, is capable of storing 600 million bits of information per square inch. This means that the entire contents of the Encyclopedia Britannica could be stored on a single 4-inch square piece of film.

SOUTHERN POLICE INSTITUTE

University of Louisville announces the Southern Police Institute spring term will begin March 20th thru June 9th.

The Institute will feature courses in Police Science and Administration.

All applications must be received by February 1, 1961.

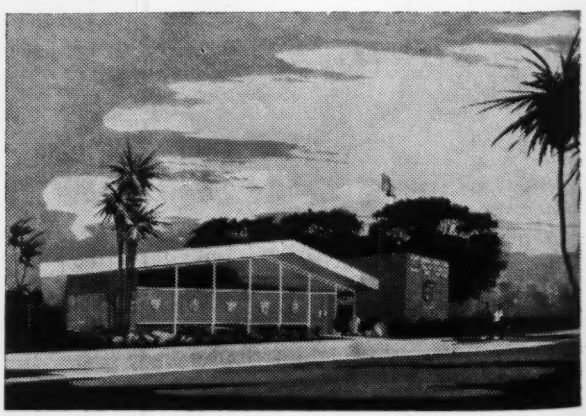
Scholarships, consisting of free tuition, available for 25 law enforcement officers.

More information may be obtained by contacting Mr. David A. McCandless, Director, Southern Police Institute, University of Louisville, Belknap Campus, Louisville 8, Kentucky.

POLICE HALL OF FAME DEDICATED

Below is a picture of the National Police Hall of Fame and Museum, a memorial to all law enforcement officers killed in the war against crime, which was formally dedicated October 15th, at Port Charlotte, Florida.

Many interesting displays, a memorial plaque, and the names of America's most distinguished law enforcement officers insure that the Hall will become one of Florida's outstanding tourist attractions.



Pictured here are graduates in police in police science and administration at Long Beach State College, class of 1960. The program is headed by Prof. A. C. Germann:

Left to right (seated): Othneil C. Borden, Los Angeles Sheriff's Office; Dutton B. MacBride; Paul M. Howard, Prof. Police Science; A. C. Germann; Carroll S. Price, Prof. Police Science; Preston M. Schroeder, Space Technology Labs.; Donald R. Brewer, Orange County Sheriff's Office.

(Standing): Raymond T. Allison, Los Angeles PD; Martin Peterson, Long Beach PD; William T. Sweeney, Fullerton PD; John R. Mullin; Robert H. Kramer, Long Beach PD; William J. Franklin, Anaheim PD; Larry A. Giddings, Los Angeles Sheriff's Office; Loran A. Norton, Santa Ana PD; Robert T. Alford, Long Beach PD; Robert A. Tally, Long Beach PD.

HEADS POLICE SCIENCE PROGRAM

Dr. M. M. Bennett, Pres. of St. Petersburg Junior College announced yesterday the formation of a new academic department: Police Administration and Public Safety. This will mark the beginning of formal police education of this type, in the state of Florida. Appointed as Chairman of the new department is former Police Chief Ronald A. LaCouture of Mackinac Island State Park, Michigan.

Prior to becoming a Police Chief in Michigan, Chairman LaCouture was a municipal police officer in Framingham, Massachusetts, and was associated with the security division of General Motors Corporation. He is the author of several articles on police methods and of a forthcoming book entitled POLICING A RESORT COMMUNITY.

POLICE SCIENCE MAJORS COMPLETE WORK

TRAFFIC OFFICERS TAKE NOTE

Fundamentals of Police Traffic Service, a three-week training course, will be presented at the Traffic Institute, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois, from February 13 to March 3, 1961. The course is open to officers responsible for planning, directing, or supervising police traffic functions.

"Fundamentals of Police Traffic Service will give officers a broad understanding of police traffic supervision as well as the supporting and cooperative activities," said Bernard R. Caldwell, director of the Institute.

The course will cover such areas as accident investigation, traffic law enforcement, traffic operations control and direction, and administrative aspects of reviewing and extending a traffic program. Topics will include Utilizing Skidmark Evidence, Pursuit, Selective Enforcement, Motor Vehicle Code, Case Preparation, and Traffic Operations and Engineering.

Tuition is $165. For further information write to Director, the Traffic Institute, 1804 Hinman Avenue, Evanston, Illinois.

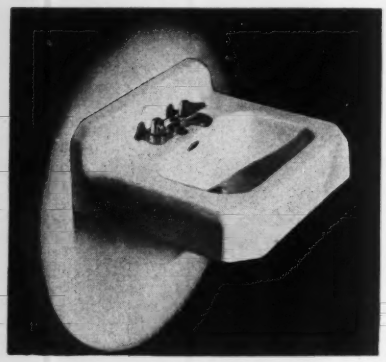
MARYLAND POLICE AIRBORNE

The Maryland State Police has purchased a 305 horsepower Hiller 12E helicoptre for the use of their organization in highway traffic patrol, traffic flow surveys, general police work, transport of high priority passengers, and for emergency and disaster use.

The photo on the left shows Corp. Bob Jennings, U. S. Army trained pilot for the Maryland State Police, inspecting the force's new Hiller 12E helicopter.

WINS DONDERO AWARD

William E. Cashin, Director of the New York State Division of Identification, was awarded the Second Annual Dondero Award Plaque, in recognition of his outstanding work in the identification field, at the 1960 Annual Convention of the International Assoc. for Identification. Mr. Cashin is shown above with Mrs. John Dondero and Birk C. Harl, Pres. of the Assoc.



NEW LAVATORY

Super Secur Ware Division of Aluminum Plumbing Fixture Corp. announces the newest addition to its line of unbreakable cast aluminum plumbing fixtures, the Model A-75 lavatory pictured above.

Super Secur Ware plumbing fixtures, because of their virtual indestructibility, are very popular breakage or vandalism has become a serious problem.

For complete information write: Super Secure Ware, c/o Aluminum Plumbing Fixture Corp., 778 Burlway Road, Burlingame, California.

JOB SLIDE RULE DESIGNED

Development of a revolutionary new testing technique for vocational guidance and in fitting workers to jobs for which they are qualified has been introduced. The new device, called the CAREER FINDER, is the result of a quarter century research to determine the kind of traits, temperatment, knowledge and skills necessary for success in each occupation.

It is unique in that it takes only about one hour to complete without supervision, and six minutes to score by any member of the personnel staff. It is especially unique in that the Career Finder is suitable for all types of jobs, including those in the police field.

Further information may be obtained from Personnel Research, Inc., 627 N. Windsor Blvd., Los Angeles 4, California.

KEELER ISSUES BULLETIN

A new bulletin entitled, "Business Uses the Lie Detector," has just been prepared by the Keeler Polygraph division of Associated Research, Inc., 3777 W. Belmont Avenue, Chicago 18, Illinois.

This new illustrated four-page publication contains data on many actual cases where the polygraph has played an important part in personnel selection, property protection and other problems of private industry. A New York detective agency is quoted as saying that eighty per cent of the demand for its polygraph services is now coming from private industry.

The bulletin, "Business Uses the Lie Detector," may be secured by writing to the Keeler Polygraph division, Associated Research, Inc., 3777 W. Belmont Avenue, Chicago 18, Illinois.

FELLOWSHIPS OFFERED

The Bureau of Highway Traffic at Yale Univ. has announced the availability of fellowships for the 1961-62 academic year to be awarded to qualified graduate engineers who are citizens of the United States and would like to enter the profession of traffic engineering.

The fellowships cover a full academic year of graduate study, starting in September and terminating the following June. The Fellowships consists of both living stipend and tuition, amounting to a total value of $2,400.00 for each Fellowship.

Fellowships are made available through grants from Automotive Safety Foundation, Esso Safety Foundation, Insurance Institute for Highway Safety and the James Kemper Foundation.

Contact Fred W. Hurd, Strathcona Hall, Yale Univ., New Haven, Conn., for further information.

CRIME PREVENTION:

Controlling vandalism and improper parking in the 23-acre Westroads Shopping Center in Suburban St. Louis was a problem for the center's manager. Patrolling the center by automobile tied up traffic. And having enough patrolmen on foot to handle this big area was too costly.

The answer came with the purchase of a passenger electric-powered Cushman Truckster, shown above. The unit, which is connected by a two-way radio with the sheriff's office has practically eliminated vandalism and car break-ins.

UNIQUE MOTION DETECTOR

A new security system that provides maximum security at lower cost, was announced at The American Society for Industrial Security Exposition by Frederick W. Howells, manager of the Singer Military Products Division.

The Unique Standing Wave Area Motion Indicator (SWAMI), provides maximum security at lower cost. Manufactured by Singer-Bridgeport, a unit of The Singer Military Products Division, the system consists of four units: the SENSOR (center), the DAY/NITE SENSITIVITY CONTROL BOX (right foreground), the MONITOR (left), and the POWER SUPPLY (rear right).

CONTROL EXPANDED

The Wayne County Road Commission has announced expansion of its radio traffic control system. Twenty Motorola receiver-decoders are being installed in the Detroit area to bring traffic signals at 50 intersections under radio control.

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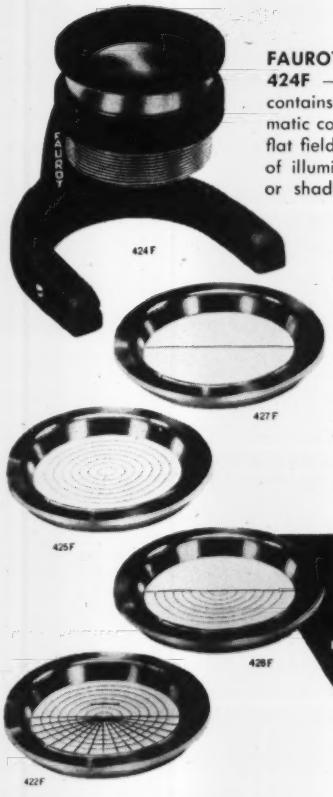
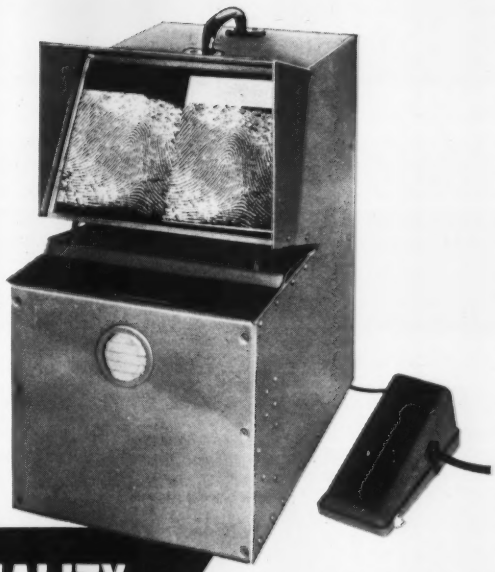


FAUROT FINGER PRINT MAGNIFIER NO. 424F — The only existing magnifier that contains triple element spherical and chromatic corrected lenses. This provides a large flat field, freedom from distortion, brilliance of illumination, and eliminates fringe color or shading.

This 4½ power lens magnifier with focusing mount is easily raised and lowered to allow individual accommodation.

The specially machined Faurot Magnifier base holds the discs rigidly at the proper focal distance. Both the Faurot Magnifier and the discontinued Spencer Magnifier will accommodate the following Faurot manufactured discs—Henry, Battley, combined Henry-Battley, and the new Cataldo disc.



The FAUROT QUALITY TRIANGLE for TAKING-CLASSIFYING-COMPARING FINGER PRINTS

- **NO DISTORTION**
- **NO FRINGE COLOR**
- **NO SHADING**

FAUROT NO. 449 FINGER PRINT COMPARATOR—A compact, completely portable comparator ideal for comparing Finger Prints, handwriting, or other evidence on a flat surface.

The evidence to be compared is simply inserted into the upper section of the comparator and is projected in natural position, over 30 times magnified, on to the image screen. The inserted evidence is automatically in focus due to the fixed lens arrangement. The hood shields the field of vision and prevents light distortion.

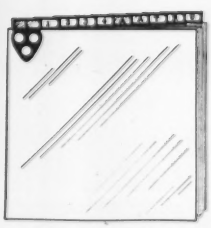
Outstanding features include quality anastigmatic triplet lens and no moving parts. The foot pedal controls the light in the comparator.

Weight 17 lbs.
Dimensions 16½" x 14½" x 10½"

FAUROT NO. 838 COMBINATION FILING CABINET—FINGER PRINT TAKING UNIT — A filing cabinet ideally suited for the taking and the classification of finger prints and the storing of finger print material (supplies). Attached to the top surface of this unit is the Faurot standard chromed-brass Card Holder and a 6" x 12" Metal Ink Slab. This unit is further equipped with an Ink Roller with Chromed-Brass Handle, Faurot Finger Print Ink and Ink Cleaner. The right hand section is a storage section divided by three adjustable shelves. The two bottom drawers of the left hand section can be adapted to any 8 x 8 filing arrangement including standard finger print cards.The two top drawers will hold over 3,000 cards each, either 3" x 5" or 4" x 6".

This steel constructed unit is designed for heavy duty work. A lock protects your file.

This combination Filing Cabinet and Finger Print Unit is ideal for a small department or the identification section of a larger organization.



Faurot Index Guide Sets are available to accommodate files of any size and are prearranged in their proper sequence according to the Henry System of classification using the latest F.B.I. extensions where necessary.

For further information on these and many other Faurot products write to:

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